

**Nonlinear Dynamical Systems**  
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**Lecture - 4**  
**Lipchitz Functions**

Welcome to lecture number four of Nonlinear Dynamical systems, we have just began seeing what a Lipchitz function is.

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The slide is titled "Lipschitz function" and contains the following text:

**Definition:**  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is called locally Lipschitz at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  if there exist

- a neighbourhood  $B(x_0, \epsilon)$  with  $\epsilon > 0$  and
- an  $L > 0$

such that

$$\|f(x_1) - f(x_2)\| \leq L \|x_1 - x_2\| \text{ for all } x_1 \text{ and } x_2 \in B(x_0, \epsilon).$$

$B(x_0, \epsilon) := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|x - x_0\| < \epsilon\}$ .  
(open ball around  $x_0$  of radius  $\epsilon$ )  $B(x_0, \epsilon) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$

$L$  is called a Lipschitz constant. Once an  $L$  is found, anything larger also works.

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So, let us just recapitulate the definition, so function  $f$  from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is called locally Lipschitz at a point  $x_0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , if there exists a neighborhood  $B$ . A neighborhood here in this case is defined to be a ball centered around  $x_0$  with radius  $\epsilon$  and the radius is greater than 0. There should exist a neighborhood and some constant  $L$ , such that this inequality is satisfied for all points  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in that neighborhood of the point  $x_0$ .


So, we are using a ball which is an open ball which means that the distance of every point in that ball is strictly less than  $\epsilon$  from the center  $x_0$  that is why it is called an open ball. So,  $L$  is called a Lipschitz constant once an  $L$  is found we can see that anything larger also can be put in here and that inequality and this inequality will be satisfied with a larger  $L$  also, in general  $L$  depends on both  $x_0$  and on  $\epsilon$ .

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Lipschitz Existence/uniqueness theorem Existence and Uniqueness of solution

### Examples of Lipschitz and non-Lipschitz functions

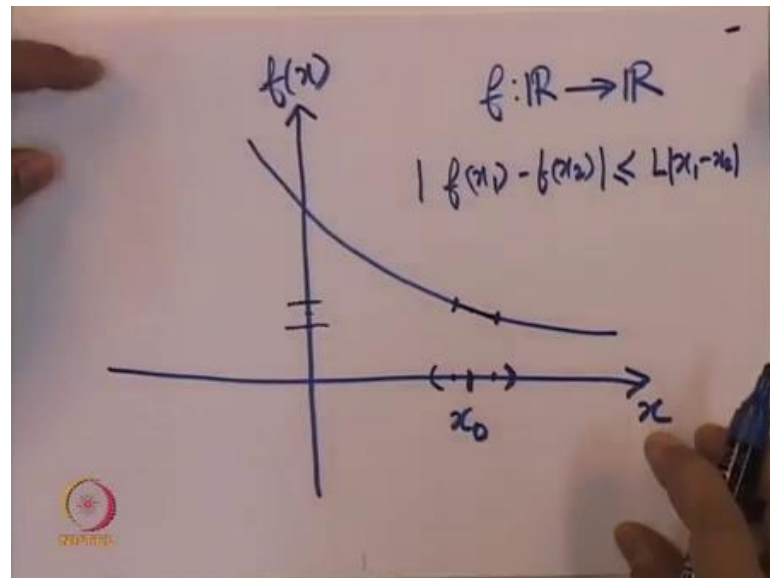
1.  $f(x) = -4x$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x = 3$ . Take  $L = 4$  (or greater).



Navigation icons: back, forward, search, etc.

So, some examples of Lipschitz functions  $f(x) = -4x$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x = 3$ . We will let us see that it is locally Lipschitz everywhere in fact it is globally Lipschitz this is what we will see very soon, but we had just began drawing a graph, what is the meaning of Lipschitz?

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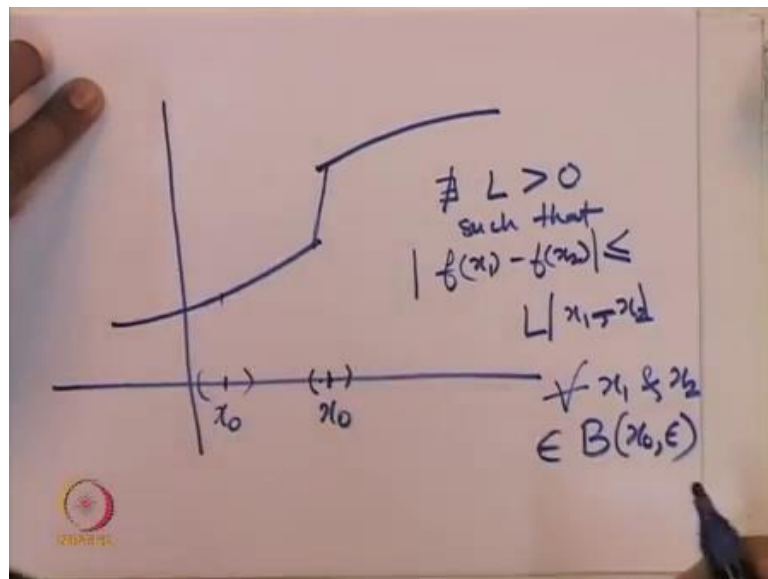


For the special case, so here is a function, so suppose we are interested in checking if the function is Lipschitz at this point locally to say it is locally Lipschitz at this point. It means we should be able to find a ball in this case; it is an open interval such that we take any

two points inside this ball and we look at the corresponding values and those values we take here so on. One side of the inequality  $f(x_1) - f(x_2)$  is less than or equal to  $L$  times  $x_1 - x_2$ .

This inequality just means that if we connect those two points by a line, then the slope of this line should have absolute value at most  $L$ . So, can we find a number  $L$  such that  $L$  puts an upper bound on the absolute value of the slope. Even though this is decreasing the slope is not positive here, but we look at the absolute value of the slope and that should be bound from above by a number  $L$ . So, we will quickly see that a discontinuous function will not satisfy Lipschitz property at the point of discontinuity.

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At other points, it could satisfy the property of Lipschitz, but at the point of discontinuity because this is the function and at  $x_0$ , we have this discontinuity. So, if at  $x_0$  how much ever small neighborhood, we take, we are forced to take points both from the left and the right. When we connect these two points in the left and the right, we see that this line could have a slope, which becomes more and more vertical. The line connecting these two points becomes more and more vertical, it will become vertical if and only if you take the point  $x_0$  and just before it, but you cannot find.

There does not exist a number  $L$  greater than 0 such that  $f(x_1) - f(x_2)$  is less than or equal to  $L$  times  $x_1 - x_2$  in which these inequalities are satisfied for all  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  for all  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in the ball. So, for how much ever small epsilon we take

because we are forced to take the point both from the left and the right it turns out that this line connecting the point from the left and connecting the point from the right. This particular line has a slope that is not bounded in absolute value, so because of that we see that there does not exist an  $L$  such that this inequalities satisfy for all  $x_1, x_2$  in the ball for a particular  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .

We might be able to find the  $L$ , but that  $L$  will work only for that  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in that ball, but we want this inequality to be satisfied for all points  $x_1, x_2$  inside the ball of radius  $\epsilon$  strictly greater than 0. So, this is how we see that if it is discontinues, it cannot be locally Lipchitz at the point of discontinuity at another point  $x_0$ . Suppose, this is another point  $x_0$  at this point, it can very well b locally Lipchitz as long as in a in this case as long as we take a ball that does not contain this discontinuity, we can see that the function is locally Lipchitz.

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**Lipschitz**      Existence, Uniqueness Theorem      Existence and Uniqueness of solution

### Examples of Lipschitz and non-Lipschitz functions

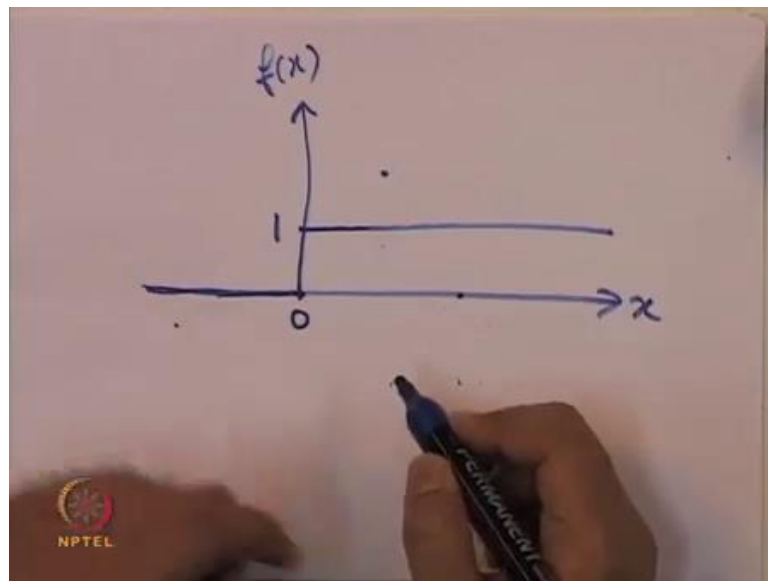
1.  $f(x) = -4x$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x = 3$ . Take  $L = 4$  (or greater).
2.  $f(x) = e^{5x}$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x = 4$ . Take  $L = 5e^{20} + 1$ .
3.  $f(x) = e^x$  is locally Lipschitz at every  $x_0$ .
4.  $f(x) = \text{'unit step'}$  is locally Lipschitz at every  $x_0$  except 0.

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So, let us see some examples, so  $f(x) = -4x$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x = 3$ , so take  $L = 4$  take the Lipschitz constant  $L = 4$  or anything larger consider the function  $f(x) = e^{5x}$ . This is locally Lipschitz at point say  $x = 4$  for this particular point, we can take the Lipschitz constant  $L = 5e^{20} + 1$ . So, notice that we are taking the slope of the function evaluated at  $x = 4$  and we take something that is slightly greater how much greater we take decided on how big the open ball around the point  $x = 4$ .

Since we are interested in just an open ball of radius greater than 0, we can take a Lipschitz constant slightly more than the slope at the point  $x$  equal to 4. Consider the function  $f(x)$  is equal to the power  $x$ , this is locally Lipschitz at every point  $x$  naught which ever point  $x$  naught. We are able to find a Lipschitz constant  $L$  that will work for all points inside a suitable ball the unit step is locally Lipschitz at every point  $x$  naught except the point  $x$  equal to 0, so what do we mean by locally, what do we mean by unit step.

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This is like our step function this is equal to 0 up to here, then suddenly it jumps to the point 1, so this particular function up to  $x$  equal to 0 it is equal to 0, for  $x$  greater than 0, it has jumped to 1. This is locally Lipschitz at every point except  $x$  equal to 0, at  $x$  equal to 0 we saw that there is this discontinuity. Hence, there will not be a constant  $L$  that will work for that inequality for all points in a ball how much ever small the ball may be.

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Lipschitz      Existence/Uniqueness Theorem      Existence and Uniqueness of solution

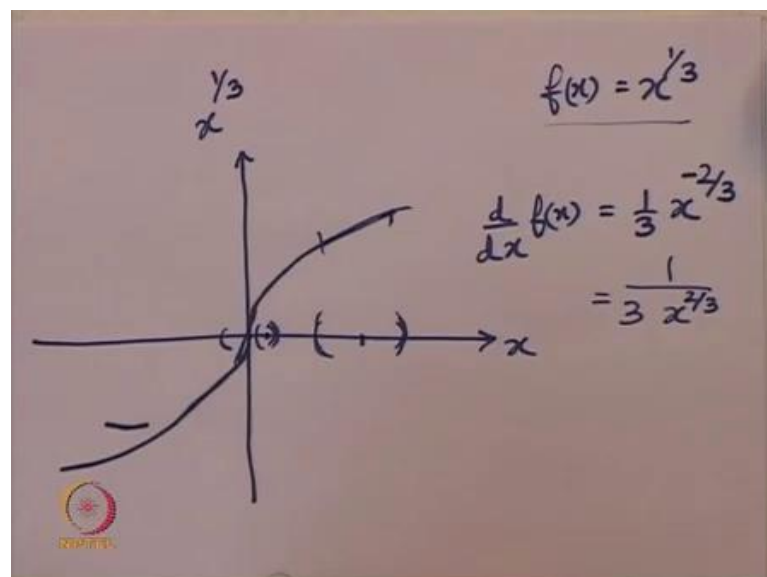
### Examples of Lipschitz and non-Lipschitz functions

1.  $f(x) = -4x$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x = 3$ . Take  $L = 4$  (or greater).
2.  $f(x) = e^{5x}$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x = 4$ . Take  $L = 5e^{20} + 1$ .
3.  $f(x) = e^x$  is locally Lipschitz at every  $x_0$ .
4.  $f(x) =$  'unit step' is locally Lipschitz at every  $x_0$  except 0.
5.  $f(x) = x^{1/3}$  is locally Lipschitz at every  $x$  except 0.



So, in other words the unit step is locally Lipschitz at every point  $x$  except the point  $x = 0$ . This particular function  $f(x) = x^{1/3}$  is locally Lipschitz at every  $x$ . Again, except  $x = 0$ , this is a very important example, we will see this again and again, so let us just draw the graph of  $f(x) = x^{1/3}$ .

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This particular graph we see that this is how the graph looks, so we see that at  $x = 0$ , this particular curve becomes vertical almost vertical. If we try to evaluate  $\frac{d}{dx}$  of

$f$  of  $x$ , we get  $\frac{1}{3}x^{-2}$  which is nothing but  $\frac{1}{3}$  times  $x$  to the power  $2$  by  $3$ . So, we see that as  $x$  tends to  $0$ , this quantity becomes unbounded and hence we see that the slope is not bounded about the point  $0$ . So, how much ever small neighborhood we take about the point  $0$  when we connect two points, we see that it could have a slope that is unbounded.

We are not able to find a number  $L$  such that the Lipschitz inequality in the Lipschitz condition definition will be satisfied for all points inside that ball. Such a number  $L$  we will not be able to find, that is why we will say this particular function is not locally Lipschitz at the point  $x$  equal to  $0$ . At another point, say here we are able to find a ball such that there will be a number  $L$ . In other words, whatever ball we take as long as we do not include the point  $0$  when we connect this, we can take the farthest and the nearest. We can see where this slope is maximum and we can choose the number  $L$  accordingly that number  $L$  will work for everything.

We have to see where the absolute value of the slope is maximum and we take a Lipschitz constant that is equal to that or more and that will work for all points in that ball. Hence, we see that as long as we do not take the point its equal to  $0$ , how much ever close we take, if it is away from  $x$  equal to  $0$ , we can find a ball such that there is a number  $L$  satisfying the Lipschitz inequality. Hence, except the point  $x$  equal to  $0$ , there is a number  $L$  that will satisfy the Lipschitz inequality, hence it is locally Lipschitz at every point except the point  $x$  equal to  $0$ .

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The slide is titled "Examples of Lipschitz and non-Lipschitz functions". It contains a list of six items:

1.  $f(x) = -4x$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x = 3$ . Take  $L = 4$  (or greater).
2.  $f(x) = e^{5x}$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x = 4$ . Take  $L = 5e^{20} + 1$ .
3.  $f(x) = e^x$  is locally Lipschitz at every  $x_0$ .
4.  $f(x) =$  'unit step' is locally Lipschitz at every  $x_0$  except 0.
5.  $f(x) = x^{1/3}$  is locally Lipschitz at every  $x$  except 0.
6.  $f(x) = x^{1/3}$  is not locally Lipschitz at 0.

At a point  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f$  being

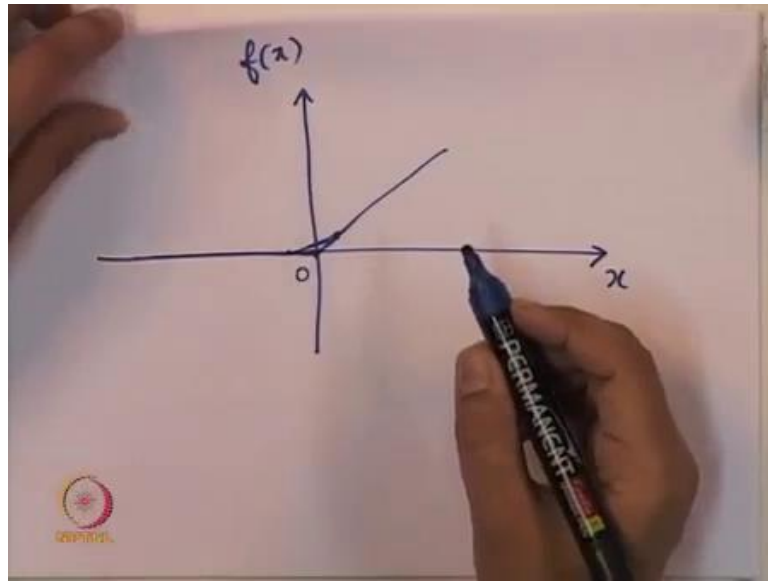
Differentiable  $\Rightarrow$  locally Lipschitz  $\Rightarrow$  continuous

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Some more examples, so the same function  $f(x)$  is equal to  $x^2$  the power 1 by 3 is not locally Lipschitz at  $x$  equal to 0. So, we could just we could conclude that at a particular point  $x_0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if  $f$  is differentiable, then it is indeed locally Lipschitz at that point  $x_0$ . If it is locally Lipschitz at a point  $x_0$ , it implies that it is continuous locally Lipschitz at a point  $x_0$  means it is continuous at that point  $x_0$  conversely. If the function  $f$  is continuous at a point  $x_0$ , it does not imply that it is locally Lipschitz at that point  $x_0$ . If the function  $f$  is locally Lipschitz at the point  $x_0$ , it does not mean that it is differentiable at the point  $x_0$ . So, we can see some examples about this just to see why differentiability is not assured by locally Lipschitz property, we will see that locally Lipschitz only requires that the slope is bounded.

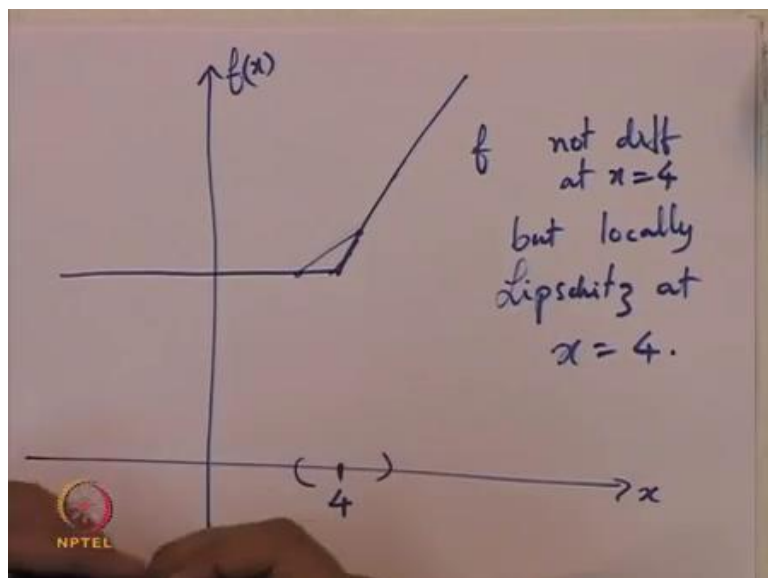


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Slope between any two points, if we take the unit ramp say it is continuous. Now, so we see that the derivative does not exist at this point because the left hand limit of the derivative and the right hand limit of the derivative are not equal to each other. Hence, at the point 0, the function  $f$  is not differentiable, but we see that since the slope is bounded, we take any two points, we connect them by this line the slope is bounded, so I will just draw a bigger figure.

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Take this particular example, so at the point let us say 4, this we have drawn a figure such that the graph of  $f$  versus  $x$  is continuous, but it is not differentiable at this point. The left hand limit of the derivative and the right limit of the derivative are not equal to each other. However, we take any two points and we connected we see that this line is guaranteed to have a slope that is less in absolute value than the slope of this line. So, we could take any two points here may be on the same side and the line slope in absolute value is an upper bound for the absolute values of the slopes of any two points close to the number 4.

In other words, we can find a ball here such that we can find the number  $L$  that will satisfy the Lipschitz inequality for all the points in that ball. In other words, here is an example of  $f$  that is not differentiable at  $x$  equal to 4, but locally Lipschitz at  $x$  equal to 4. In other words, if somebody tells us that this particular function  $f$  is locally Lipschitz at the point  $x$  equal to 4 and one asks us does it imply that  $f$  is differential able at the point  $x$  equal to 4, answer is no, it is what the statement here says.

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**Examples of Lipschitz and non-Lipschitz functions**

- $f(x) = -4x$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x = 3$ . Take  $L = 4$  (or greater).
- $f(x) = e^{5x}$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x = 4$ . Take  $L = 5e^{20} + 1$ .
- $f(x) = e^x$  is locally Lipschitz at every  $x_0$ .
- $f(x) =$  'unit step' is locally Lipschitz at every  $x_0$  except 0.
- $f(x) = x^{1/3}$  is locally Lipschitz at every  $x$  except 0.
- $f(x) = x^{1/3}$  is not locally Lipschitz at 0.

At a point  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f$  being

Differentiable  $\Rightarrow$  locally Lipschitz  $\Rightarrow$  continuous

locally Lipschitz  $\not\Rightarrow$  Differentiable      continuous  $\not\Rightarrow$  locally Lipschitz

So, if the function  $f$  is differentiable it does imply that it is locally Lipschitz at the point  $x$  naught. If it is locally Lipschitz at the point  $x$  naught it is also continuous at the point  $x$  naught, but if it is continuous at the point  $x$  naught, it does not imply that it is locally Lipschitz at  $x$  naught. We saw  $x$  to the power 1 by 3 as a important example and if it is

locally Lipschitz at a point  $x_0$ , it does not imply that it is differentiable at the point  $x_0$ , for that we saw an example now.

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The slide is titled "Locally/globally Lipschitz" and contains the following text:

Suppose  $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ . (Domain:  $D$ )

Possibilities:

- $f$  is locally Lipschitz at a point  $x_0 \in D$ .
- $f$  is locally Lipschitz at each point in  $D \equiv$  locally Lipschitz on  $D$ . ( $L$  has to be modified, maybe.)
- $f$  is locally Lipschitz on  $D$  and the Lipschitz constant is independent of  $x_0 \in D \equiv$  Lipschitz on  $D$ .
- $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $f$  is Lipschitz on  $\mathbb{R}^n \equiv$   $f$  is globally Lipschitz.

Globally Lipschitz functions:  $\sin x, \cos x, ax$  (constant), constant function, zero function.

Locally Lipschitz on  $\mathbb{R}$  but not globally Lipschitz:  $x^\beta, e^x, e^{-x}$ , any polynomial of degree at least two.

So, we will just spend a few we will spend one slide on the difference between locally Lipschitz and globally Lipschitz. So, for this purpose we need to see to what extent the number  $L$  depends on  $x_0$  and  $\epsilon$ , so consider a domain  $d$  a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f$  a map from  $d$  to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . So,  $f$  need not be defined on whole or  $\mathbb{R}^n$  it is defined on a domain  $d$  for domain is a open connected subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  in this case. So, to say that  $d$  is a domain in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , it means  $d$  is a open and connected subset of  $d$  open and connected subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

So, for a function  $f$  that is a map from  $d$  to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , there are various possibilities  $f$  could be locally Lipschitz that a point  $x_0$  in  $d$ , we saw the definition for locally Lipschitz at a point. We could also have a situation where at every point in  $d$   $f$  is locally Lipschitz at that point this we will say is, we will use a word  $f$  is locally Lipschitz on  $d$ . So, what is the significance here  $L$  might have to be modified depending on the point  $x_0$ , if  $x_0$  is another point the slope absolute value of the slope might be larger because of which  $L$  might have to be made larger.

So, at each point in  $d$   $f$  is locally Lipschitz, but the Lipschitz constant  $L$  has to be modified depending on the point  $x_0$  perhaps  $L$  has to be modified. We will say  $f$  is locally Lipschitz on  $d$  if it is the case that  $f$  is locally Lipschitz on  $d$  and the Lipschitz constant is independent of the point  $x_0$  in  $d$ . Then, we will say  $f$  is Lipschitz on  $d$  the word

locally is no longer relevant, since we can find one Lipschitz constant  $L$  that works for the entire domain  $d$ . Finally, when the domain  $d$  is a whole of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if  $s$  is Lipschitz on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that is there is a constant  $L$  that works for every point  $x$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Then, we will say  $f$  is globally Lipschitz, so examples of globally Lipschitz functions are  $\sin x$ ,  $\cos x$ , a constant  $a$  times  $x$ , the constant function itself and the zero function. It is possible to decide for each of these functions a Lipschitz constant  $L$  that works for the entire domain of these functions. Entire domain in this case is whole of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Examples of functions which are locally Lipschitz on  $\mathbb{R}$ , but not globally Lipschitz are  $x^2$ ,  $e^x$ ,  $e^{-x}$ ,  $x$  square,  $e$  to the power  $x$ ,  $e$  to the power minus  $x$  in fact any polynomial of degree 2 or more.

So, these all examples are locally Lipschitz on  $\mathbb{R}$ , but not globally Lipschitz, why because this  $x^2$ , its slope could become very large depending on the point. Hence, there is no one number  $L$  that works on the whole of  $\mathbb{R}$  similarly,  $e^x$  and  $e^{-x}$  can have slope which are very large in absolute value.

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The slide is titled "Existence/uniqueness of solutions" and contains the following text:

**Theorem:** Consider  $\dot{x} = f(x)$  and  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Suppose  $f$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x_0$ . Then, there is a  $\delta > 0$ , such that there is a unique solution  $x(t)$  to the differential equation with  $x(0) = x_0$  for the interval  $t \in [0, \delta]$ .

Existence and uniqueness of a solution for only a (perhaps very small, but nonzero) interval of time. Is 'locally Lipschitz' important?

$\dot{x} = x^{1/3}$  has (at least) two solutions:  
 $f(x) = x^{1/3}$  is continuous, but not Lipschitz at  $x = 0$ .  
 $x(t) \equiv 0$  and ?

The slide also features a small circular logo with a star and the text "MPTEL" in the bottom left corner, and a set of navigation icons in the bottom right corner.

We finally come to the existence and uniqueness theorem for solution to a differential equation. So, consider  $\dot{x}$  is equal to  $f$  of  $x$  consider this differential equation where  $f$  is a map from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and consider the point  $x_0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  assume  $f$  is locally Lipschitz at  $x_0$ . Then, there is a  $\delta$  greater than 0 such that there is a unique solution  $x$  of  $t$  to the differential equation  $\dot{x}$  is equal to  $f$  of

$x$  with the initial condition  $x(0)$  equal to  $x_0$ . So, such a solution such a unique solution exists for the time interval  $t$  belonging to  $0$  to  $\delta$ .

So, there is some number  $\delta$  that is strictly positive because of it, there is this interval of time  $0$  to  $\delta$  for which we have a solution. Moreover, the solution is unique that is what it says with the initial condition  $x(0)$  is equal to the point  $x_0$  where the function  $f$  was assumed to be locally Lipschitz. So, it turns out that existence and uniqueness of a solution is being guaranteed for only an interval of time it is possible that this interval of time is very small, but it is guaranteed to be a non zero interval of time it is not just one point, but it is an interval  $0$  to  $\delta$ .

We can ask the question is locally Lipschitz important after all we have spent analyzing the significance of Lipschitz locally Lipschitz its relation to differentiability and continuity. We could ask is this locally Lipschitz property really crucial for the existence and uniqueness of the solution to the differential equation. For this purpose, we will see that the differential equation  $\dot{x} = x^{1/3}$  has at least two solutions, why because  $x$  to the Power  $1/3$  turned out to not be locally Lipschitz. Hence, uniqueness was not guaranteed by this theorem and we will see that there are two solutions what are these solutions this is what we will see now.

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Existence/uniqueness theorem

### Example of non-uniqueness

Consider  $\dot{x} = x^{1/3}$ .

$x^{-1/3} dx = dt$     Now, integrating both sides

$\frac{x^{2/3}}{2/3} = t + c_1$

$x^{2/3} = \frac{2t}{3} + c_0$

$x(t) = \left(\frac{2t}{3} + c_0\right)^{3/2}$

Can get  $c_0$  such that  $x(0) = 0$  at  $t = 0$ .

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So, consider this differential equation  $\dot{x} = x^{1/3}$ , so we can rewrite this as  $x^{-1/3} dx = dt$ . Upon integrating both sides,

we see that we get this equality where  $c_1$  is some constant and re writing these terms  $x$  to the power  $2/3$  is now equal to  $2t/3$  plus  $c_0$ . So,  $x(0)$  and  $c_1$  are related by the constant  $2/3$ , for convenience we have renamed  $c_1$  times  $2/3$  as  $c$ . Then, upon taking suitable powers we see that  $x(t)$  is equal to  $2t/3$  plus  $c$  this to the power  $3/2$ . So, we see that this is also a solution to the differential equation and how do we calculate  $c$ , we can ask the question suppose at  $t$  equal to  $0$ . The solution, the differential equation was at  $x$  satisfied  $x(0)$  is equal to  $0$  at  $t$  equal to  $0$  by substituting this we can get  $c = 0$ .

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$$x(t) = \left(\frac{2t}{3}\right)^{3/2}$$

$$\dot{x} = x^{1/3}$$

$$x(0) = 0$$

$$\dot{x} = 0 \text{ at } x = 0$$

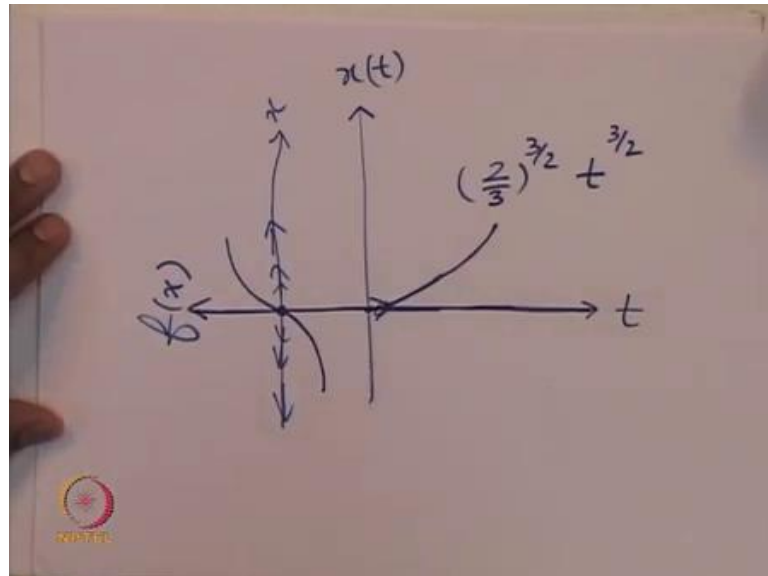
then  $x(t) \equiv 0$   
is also a soln of  
the diff. eqn.

So, we see that  $x(t)$  equal to  $2t/3$  to the power  $3/2$  is a solution to the differential equation which differential equation  $\dot{x}$  is equal to  $x$  to the power  $1/3$  with the initial condition  $x(0)$  is equal to  $0$ . Is this the only solution? no because if  $x$  equal to  $0$  at  $x$  equal to  $0$ , then we also know that  $x(t)$  is also a solution is also a solution of the differential equation. So, we see that if  $x$  is equal to  $0$  at  $t$  equal to  $0$ , then  $\dot{x}$  is equal to  $0$ , why is  $\dot{x}$  equal to  $0$ , because we put  $x$  equal to  $0$  here and cube root of  $0$  is nothing but  $0$  and hence  $\dot{x}$  is equal to  $0$ .

Then, we conclude that  $x$  is equal to  $0$  for all time  $t$  this is one solution to the differential equation, but we see that  $x(t)$  is equal to  $2t/3$  whole to the power  $3/2$  is also a solution to the differential equation with the same initial condition. So, for the same

initial condition, we see that we have two solutions to the differential equation let us just draw a graph of  $x$  versus time.

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So, here is this  $x$  that was 0 until  $t$  equal to 0 and from here it is growing as 2 by 3 to the power 3 by 2 times  $t$  to the power 3 by 2, this is a graph of  $x$  versus time  $t$  and in addition the differential equation also has equivalently equal to 0. As a solution, the differential equation, in other words at this point  $t$  equal to 0, there is this solution that comes out of  $x$  equal to 0 and it also continuous at  $x$  equal to 0 has another solution at this point. The vector field we see that it is pointed, sorry this is something we have to plot like this. So, the graph of  $x$  to the power of 1 by 3 is like this, we see that of course there is this instability, but at  $x$  equal to 0 itself the arrow had length 0 because the graph  $f$  crossed the  $x$  axis at  $x$  equal to 0.

Hence, if it is at the point  $x$  equal to 0, then it continuous to be at the point  $x$  equal to 0 this is what our vector field diagram told us, but here we see that in addition to continuing to be at 0. There is also this possibility that it comes out it emanates out of the equilibrium point without requiring a perturbation while this figure says that this equilibrium point is a unstable equilibrium point. We see that upon perturbation, there are points that are trajectories that are going away from the equilibrium point, but here is an example because of this non.

Locally, Lipschitz property at the point  $x$  equal to 0 without a perturbation also we see that there is a solution emanates out of the equilibrium point thus making us ask what is what exactly is the definition of an equilibrium point. When there are solutions that can emanate out of the equilibrium point even without requiring a perturbation for these purposes. We will form now on eventually assume that a function  $f$  when studying a differential equation satisfies locally Lipschitz at every at every point  $x$  naught. This is an example where without locally Lipschitz property, it turns out that can be non uniqueness of solutions to the differential equation.

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Existence/uniqueness theorem

### Example of non-uniqueness

Consider  $\dot{x} = x^{1/3}$ .

$x^{-1/3} dx = dt$       Now, integrating both sides

$\frac{x^{2/3}}{2/3} = t + c_1$

$x^{2/3} = \frac{2t}{3} + c_0$

$x(t) = \left(\frac{2t}{3} + c_0\right)^{3/2}$

Can get  $c_0$  such that  $x(0) = 0$  at  $t = 0$ .

Verify :  $x(t)$  indeed solves the differential equation.  
 $x$  is differentiable,  $f(x)$  is continuous but not Lipschitz at  $x = 0$ .

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So, we see that the solution  $x$  is differentiable, we are we were able to get explicitly the solution  $x$  as a function of time we can also differentiate this as a function of time. We see that it solves this differential equation  $f$  of  $x$  is continuous, but it is not locally Lipschitz at  $x$  equal to 0. That is why the previous theorem would not guarantee existence of solutions existence and uniqueness of solutions and here is an example where uniqueness fails.



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The slide is titled "Proof outline" and contains the following text:

Define an operator  $P$  that takes one 'estimate' of solution trajectory to give 'better' estimate of solution.  
Picard's iteration:  
 $P(x_n)$  is estimate of solution trajectory at  $n$ -th iteration.  
Desired solution satisfies  $P(x) = x$ : 'fixed point'  
 $P$  takes  $x$  and gives back same  $x$ :  $P$  'fixes'  $x$ .  
Lipschitz condition on  $f$  will help to prove convergence to unique 'fixed point' (in a complete space).  
Banach Fixed Point Theorem  
The fixed 'point' is a trajectory  $x(t)$  for interval  $[0, \delta]$  for some (perhaps small)  $\delta > 0$ .

The slide also features a logo for MPTEL in the bottom left corner and navigation icons in the bottom right corner.

So, because of the importance of this result of existence and uniqueness of solutions to differential equation under locally Lipschitz Property, we will because of its importance, we will see the proof. So, the outline of the proof will be as follows, we will define an operator  $p$  that takes one estimate of the solution trajectory and gives the better estimate of the solution. So, this operator  $p$  takes a trajectory a trajectory which is a solution to the differential equation on the interval  $0$  to  $\delta$  and it gives a better estimate of the solution.

So, this is going to be called Picard's iteration because of Picard's work in this area. So,  $p x_n$  is an estimate of the solution trajectory at the  $n$ th iteration, we will define  $p$  such that the desired solution will satisfy  $p x$  equal to  $x$ . In other words,  $x$  will be a so called fixed point, why do we call it fixed because this desired solution to the differential equation takes  $x$  and gives back the same  $x$  in other words. While it takes different  $x_n$  and gives back  $x_{n+1}$  possibly  $x_{n+1}$  is different from  $x_n$  while this is possible.

In general, we will construct  $p$  such that the desired solution  $x$  will satisfy  $p x$  equal to  $x$ , in other words  $p$  fixes  $x$ , so the Lipschitz condition on  $f$  will help to prove convergence of this iteration to a unique fixed point. This fixed point would be unique provided we are looking for a so called complete space this is these are something that we will define precisely. So, for this purpose we will use a so called Banach fixed point theorem, so please note that the point in this context is a trajectory  $x$  of  $t$  for the interval  $0$  to  $\delta$

possibly the interval delta the interval 0 to delta is a very small interval. In other words, delta is only slightly more than 0, but it is positive which means that interval is not just a point, but it is the interval of time of length delta.

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Picard's iterates

Define operator P: takes a continuous function  $x(t)$  and gives a continuous function  $y = Px$ .

$$(Px)(t) = x_0 + \int_0^t f(x(\tau))d\tau \text{ for } t \in [0, \delta]$$

$x(t)$  is a solution to the differential equation  $\frac{d}{dt}x(t) = f(x(t))$ , with  $x(0) = x_0$

⇕

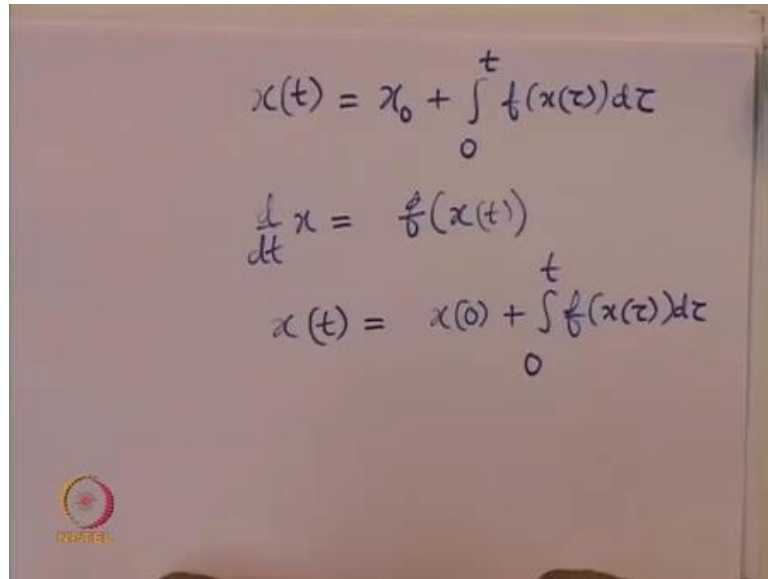
$x(t)$  is a solution to the integral equation  $x(t) = x_0 + \int_0^t f(x(\tau))d\tau$

The latter says  $x$  is a function such that  $Px = x$ .

So, how will we define this Picard's iterates, so define the operator p that takes a continuous function x of t and gives another continuous function y is equal to p of x. How will we define it p x is again a function of time p x at any time, t is defined as x naught plus the integral from 0 to t of f of x tau d tau where t belongs to the interval 0 to delta. So, t comes in here and this integral is being added to 0, so we see that 4, this t equal to 4 this particular trajectory is also equal to x naught so these are different functions of time that start form x naught. So, what is the significance of this operator p with our solution to this with our differential equation?

We see that x t is a solution to the differential equation d by d t of x is equal to f of x. With this initial condition x 0 is equal to z naught if and only if x t is a solution to the integral equation to this integral equation x of t equal to x naught plus integral from 0 to t F of x tau d tau. So, by differentiating this right hand side, this is something you can quickly check, y is solution to this equation also solution to the differential equation.

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$$x(t) = x_0 + \int_0^t f(x(\tau)) d\tau$$
$$\frac{d}{dt} x = f(x(t))$$
$$x(t) = x(0) + \int_0^t f(x(\tau)) d\tau$$

We see that  $x$  appears on both sides, here is  $x$  and  $x$  is also inside this integral, so  $d$  by  $d t$  of  $x$  is equal to  $del t$  of this is a is equal to 358 and since  $t$  appears only here this is nothing but  $f$  evaluated at the  $n$  point. So, this is what our differential equation wants, in other words this solution to the integral equation is exactly a solution to this differential equation. Also, when we integrate this on both sides, we see that  $x$  of  $t$  also satisfies this initial condition plus integral from 0 to  $t$  of the right hand side.

In other words, solution to the differential equation when integrating both sides is differential equation; we obtain exactly the integral equation. Thus, solution to the integral equation is a solution to the differential equation and solution to the differential equation is also a solution to the integral equation. However, we see that here also  $x$  appears on both sides and here also  $x$  appears on both sides and it is not clear that going from a differential equation to the integral equation is genuinely a improvement. We will see that obtaining an integral equation allows us to use Picard's iteration.

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Lipschitz Existence/uniqueness theorem Existence and Uniqueness of solution

### Picard's iterates

Define operator  $P$ : takes a continuous function  $x(t)$  and gives a continuous function  $y = Px$ .

$$(Px)(t) = x_0 + \int_0^t f(x(\tau))d\tau \text{ for } t \in [0, \delta]$$

$x(t)$  is a solution to the differential equation  $\frac{d}{dt}x(t) = f(x(t))$ , with  $x(0) = x_0$

$\Downarrow$

$x(t)$  is a solution to the integral equation  $x(t) = x_0 + \int_0^t f(x(\tau))d\tau$

The latter says  $x$  is a function such that  $Px = x$ .

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So, latter what is important is that when  $X$  satisfies this integral equation that  $x$  is also a fixed point of this operator  $p$  why because the right hand side is nothing but  $p$  of  $x$ . What  $x$  we have put in here is exactly, what is also here, that is why this particular integral equation says that  $p$  of  $x$  equal to  $x$ .

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Lipschitz Existence/uniqueness theorem Existence and Uniqueness of solution

### Special case: $f$ independent of $x$

For  $\frac{d}{dt}x = f(t)$  with  $x(0) = x_0$  (no dependence of  $x$ ), then  $x(t) := x_0 + \int_0^t f(\tau)d\tau$ . (No guess/iteration required.)

But when  $f$  depends on  $x$ , then  $x(t) := x_0 + \int_0^t f(x(\tau))d\tau$ . 'Define' ?? (Only carefully chosen  $x$  will satisfy this.)

Take  $x_1$  as the function of time  $x_1(t) \equiv x_0$ .

$x_2(t) = x_0 + \int_0^t f(x_1(\tau))d\tau$ , i.e.  $x_2 = P(x_1)$

$\vdots$

Will this converge?

Yes (for carefully constructed  $\delta > 0$ )

hard/remaining part of the proof

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So, we will first see the special case and  $f$  is independent of  $x$  may be  $f$  is allowed to depend on time, only here we will assume that  $f$  is a function of time explicitly and there is no dependence on  $x$ . So, consider this differential equation  $d, d t$  of  $x$  is equal to  $f$  of  $t$

with this initial condition  $x_0$ . So, there is no dependence of  $f$  on  $x$  then we are able to integrate this  $x$  of  $t$ , we can then define as  $x_0$  plus this integral from 0 to  $t$  of  $f$  of  $\tau$   $d\tau$ . So, there is no guess or iteration required to define this such a definition  $x$  will always satisfy this differential equation, but when  $f$  depends on  $x$ , then we are not able to define this why because  $x$  appears both on the right hand side and left hand side of this integral equation.

So, the word define can no longer be used here, so only a carefully chosen  $x$  will satisfy this equation and that is indeed the solution to our integral equation. So, what we will do now is we will take  $x_1$  as some function of time, it turns out that within a small neighborhood of the actual solution, which solution we take will not matter. So, we will take  $x_1$  of  $t$  equivalently equal to  $x_0$ , so we will take the function  $x_1$ , which is always equal to  $x_0$  value  $x_0$  is a point in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  which corresponds to your initial condition.

There is one particular function, which is always equal to  $x_0$  for all time  $t$  that we will take as our initial  $x_1$ . Then, we will define  $x_2$  as  $x_0$  plus this integral with  $f$  evaluated at  $x_1$  instead of  $x_2$ . Now, since we have  $x_1$  here, which we know and  $x_2$ , which do not know we are allowed to use  $x_2$  defined by this right hand side. In other words,  $x_2$  is equal to  $p$  times  $x_1$ , so we can similarly define  $x_3$  as  $p$  times  $x_2$  and in general  $x_{n+1}$  as  $p$  times  $x_n$ .


So, the question arises will this converge will this converge to a solution in other words will it converge to a fixed point of the operator  $p$ . So, the answer is it will converge for a carefully constructed  $\delta$  that will be strictly greater than 0 and for ensuring that this  $\delta$  is strictly greater than 0 and that it exists. We will be using the Lipschitz locally Lipschitz property of  $f$  at the point  $x_0$ , so this is the hard and remaining part of the proof which we will proceed and do now.

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Existence/uniqueness theorem

Existence and Uniqueness of solution

**Please note:**  
 $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  :  $x_0$  is the **initial condition** for the differential equation  $\frac{d}{dt}x = f(x)$ .  
 $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are **continuous functions of time**: iterates of the operator  $P$ .



So, please note that  $x_0$  is a point in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  this is the initial condition for the differential equation  $\frac{d}{dt}x = f(x)$ . On the other hand,  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are continuous functions of time and these are iterates of the operator  $P$ . These are no longer points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , but they are functions, which take their values in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for different time instance.

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Existence/uniqueness theorem

Existence and Uniqueness of solution

**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  $v_1, v_2 \in V$ .



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  $V$ . There is a real value function, which we will call as the norm and we will denote it as the norm of  $v$  by this notation such that this norm is always greater than or equal to 0. So, norm of vector  $v$  will be a real number and it cannot be negative, that is what it says.

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 we scale the vector  $v$  by a constant  $\alpha$ . Then, the norm also gets scaled by that same number  $\alpha$  the same number  $\alpha$  if  $\alpha$  is positive and absolute value of  $\alpha$  in general. So, for any real number  $\alpha$  and a vector  $v$  this equality has to be satisfied and finally, the triangular inequality is required to be satisfied. So, for two vectors  $v_1$  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  $v_2$ , this is called triangular inequality, this is called the linearity property of norm function, this is the definition that the notion of length of a vector is required to satisfy.

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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 a 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, this is because elements  $a_n$  are converging close to each other does not mean they will eventually converge to a number  $a$ . So, this 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  $\epsilon$  greater than 0, there exists some capital  $n$  possibly depending on  $\epsilon$  such that if we want that  $a_n$  and  $a_m$  are smaller than  $\epsilon$ . Then, that will be satisfied for all  $n$ , and  $m$  that are greater than this capital  $n$ , so the importance of this 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  $\epsilon$ , then all we have to do is take  $m$  and  $n$  greater than some capital  $n$ . So, when somebody specifies  $\epsilon$  greater than 0, we are able to find number  $n$  such that this inequality is satisfied for all  $n$  and  $m$  greater than capital  $n$ . So, in general if  $\epsilon$  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 converge is not true see 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 such that  $a_n$  converges to  $a$  and this latter 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 is called complete. If every Cauchy sequence is convergent in the sense of this limit, so we see that if every Cauchy sequence, in other words a 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

### 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  $z_1$ .

$\pi$  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  $\pi$  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 Banach space, so what is the 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 are 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 a complete vector space. So, which norm here it turns out is not relevant, we could take for example, the standard we could take the Euclidian norm which is very standard.

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$v \in \mathbb{R}^n$   $(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$

$$\|v\|_2 := \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$$
$$\|v\|_\infty := \max_{i=1, \dots, n} |v_i|$$

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Suppose, a vector  $v$  is in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then we can define this is one of the definition  $v_1^2$  square plus  $v_2^2$  square plus  $v_n^2$  square this guarantee that it is positive and when 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  $n$  triple every element in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a  $n$  triple 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, we  $v_1$  up to  $v_n$  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 examples of in complete spaces are. So, the set  $\mathbb{Q}$  of rational numbers this is incomplete what is rational  $q$  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,  $\pi$  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 two can have a decimal expansion, if we take more number of digits in the decimal expansion, then we get a more representation of the number square root of two.

Similarly, for  $\pi$ , but just because we can approximate square root of 2 and  $\pi$  by a very good approximation using decimal expansion that does not imply that there are integers  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  such that  $z_1$  by  $z_2$  is equal to either  $\pi$  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  $\pi$ , similarly there do not exist integer  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  such that  $z_1$  by  $z_2$  is equal to square root of 2. In other words  $\pi$  and square root of 2 are so called irrational numbers. However, we know that these irrational numbers can be approximated arbitrarily well this proves that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not complete.

Another important set in other 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 the space of continuous functions on this interval functions form this interval  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . This whole also denoted by  $C^0$  by this notation. So, the zero 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 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 functions is complete or not that statement depends on norm with respect to which we are asking the question.

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The image shows handwritten mathematical notes on a whiteboard. The text is as follows:

$$C^0([0, \delta], \mathbb{R}^n)$$

$$f \in C^0([0, \delta], \mathbb{R}^n)$$

$$\|f\|_{\text{sup}} := \max_{t \in [0, \delta]} \|f(t)\|_2$$

$$f(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

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 0 is being put here. They take their domain is from 0 to delta, it takes it 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, we 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  $\mathbb{R}^n$  this is the meaning of  $f$  is a element of is a element of continuous function 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 said 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 being taken. So, the sup norm is a norm on the space of continuous function 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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$$C^0([0, \delta], \mathbb{R}^n)$$

$$\|f\|_{L_2} := \sqrt{\int_0^{\delta} \|f(t)\|_2^2 dt}$$

with respect to  $L_2$  norm

$$C^0([0, \delta], \mathbb{R}^n)$$

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  $\delta$ . So, we can take the two norm of the vector  $f$  of  $t$  at a time instant  $t$  and the 2 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 said to be the L 2 norm of the function  $f$  where  $f$  is a element of this L 2 norm is also no longer dependent on  $t$ , but  $f$  of  $t$  before we took the 2 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 a L two norm so with respect to with respect to L two 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 soup norm. However, two functions if they are going close to each other, they will eventually converge to a continuous function again inside the space.

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Existence/uniqueness theorem

## 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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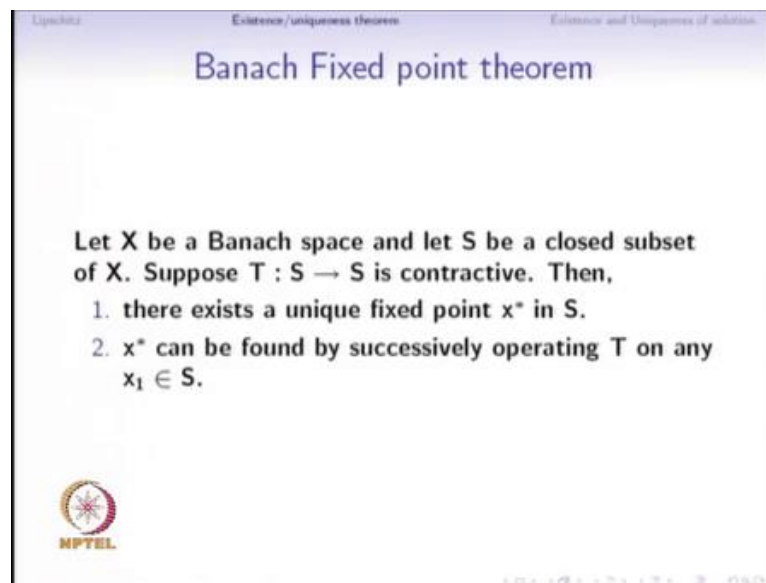
So, finally using these notions, we can prove we can state the Banach fixed point theorem. So, for that we just need the notion of close subset and a contractive mapping so for a set  $x$  a subset  $s$  of  $x$  is said to be a close subset of  $x$  if the boundary of  $s$  is within  $x$ . This is 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 we take a 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,  $s$  is said to be a closed subset of the set  $x$  and what is contractive. So, if  $x$  is a norm vector space a map  $p$  from  $x$  to  $x$  is said to be contractive if there exists a number  $\rho$  that is strictly less than 1 such that this inequality is satisfied for all  $x_1, x_2$  in  $x$ . What is this inequality,  $\|px_1 - px_2\|$  is at most  $\rho$  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  $\|px_2 - px_1\|$  is a vector upon action under  $p$ .

So, this vector is getting contracted under the action of  $p$  why contraction because this  $\rho$  is some number strictly less than 1. So, we will say this map is contractive if there

exist such a number  $\rho$  such that this inequality satisfies for all  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in  $X$  the number. The number  $\rho$  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 see it is contractive if such a number  $\rho$  exists.

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The slide is titled "Banach Fixed point theorem" and 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 a logo for MPTEL 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 just now defined let  $X$  be a Banach space and let  $S$  be a close subset of  $X$ . Then, let  $T$  a map from  $S$  to  $S$  let  $T$  be contractive, then first of all there exists a unique fixed point  $x^*$  in  $S$  fixed for this operator  $T$ . Moreover, that fixed point  $x^*$  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, we take  $T$  times  $x_1$ , then we take  $T$  times  $T$  of  $x_1$  when we do this iteration, 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.