## Solution 7

1. Consider maps from  $\mathbb R$  to itself. Provide explicit examples of continuous maps with exactly one, two and three fixed, and one map satisfying  $|f(x)-f(y)| < |x-y|$  but no fixed points.

**Solution.** Let f be our function. We consider  $g(x) = f(x) - x$ . It suffices to produce examples with exactly one, two and three roots. For instance,  $g_1(x) = -x$  has exactly one root.  $g_2(x) = x^2 - 1$  has exactly two roots.  $g_3(x) = (x - 1)(x - 2)(x - 3)$  has exactly three roots. The corresponding  $f_1, f_2, f_3$  fulfil our requirement. Finally, the function  $f(x) = x + \log(1 + e^{-x})$  does not have any fixed point.

2. Let T be a continuous map on the complete metric space X. Suppose that for some  $k$ ,  $T<sup>k</sup>$  becomes a contraction. Show that T admits a unique fixed point. This generalizes the contraction mapping principle in the case  $k = 1$ .

**Solution.** Since  $T^k$  is a contraction, there is a unique fixed point  $x \in X$  such that  $T^k x = x$ . Then  $T^{k+1} x = T^k T x = T x$  shows that  $T x$  is also a fixed point of  $T^k$ . From the uniqueness of fixed point we conclude  $Tx = x$ , that is, x is a fixed point for T. Uniqueness is clear since any fixed point of T is also a fixed point of  $T^k$ .

3. Show that the equation  $2x \sin x - x^4 + x = 0.001$  has a root near  $x = 0$ .

**Solution.** Here  $\Psi(x) = 2x \sin x - x^4$ . We need to find some  $r, \gamma$  so it is a contraction. We have

$$
\Psi'(x) = 2\sin x + 2x\cos x - 4x^2.
$$

Using  $|\sin x| < |x|$  and  $|\cos x| \leq 1$ , we have

$$
|\Psi'(x)| \leq 2r + 2r + 4r^2 = 4r(1 + r^2), \quad \forall x, |x| \leq r.
$$

By the mean-value theorem,  $\Psi(x_1) - \Psi(x_2) = \Psi'(z)(x_1 - x - 2)$  where z lies on the line segment from  $x_1$  to  $x_2$  (so  $|z| \leq r$  when  $|x_1|, |x_2| \leq r$ ). Therefore,

$$
|\Psi(x_1) - \Psi(x_2)| = |\Psi(z)||x_1 - x_2| \leq 2r(1+r^2)|x_1 - x_2|.
$$

Now we fix  $r = 1/5$ . Then  $\gamma = 4r(1 + r^2) = 0.812$  and  $R = (1 - \gamma)r = 0.0336$ . By the theorem on the perturbation of identity, the equation  $x + \Psi(x) = a$  is solvable whenever  $|a| \le 0.0336$ . Now,  $0.001 \le 0.0336$ , so the equation has a root x satisfying  $|x| \le 1/5 = 0.2$ .

4. Study the solvability of

$$
\sin^2 \pi x + 2x^2 = 2.0012
$$
.

Hint: Consider  $\Phi(1) = 2$  and shift things to the origin as done in Notes.

**Solution.** The equation can be expressed as  $\Phi(x) = 2.0012$ . Observe that  $\Phi(1) = 2$ . We let  $\Phi_1(x) = \Phi(x+1) - \Phi(1) = \sin^2 \pi x + 2x^2 + 4x$ . Now, 4x is not the form of identity, but in any case we have reduced the problem to

$$
\sin^2 \pi x + 2x^2 + 4x = 0.0012.
$$

To solve this new equation, which is the same as

$$
\frac{1}{4}\sin^2 \pi x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + x = 0.0003,
$$

is in the form of perturbation of identity. Let  $\Psi(x) = \frac{1}{4} \sin^2 \pi x + \frac{1}{2}$  $\frac{1}{2}x^2$  be the perturbation term. For  $x, |x| \leq r$ , we have  $\Psi'(x) = \frac{\pi}{4} \sin 2\pi x + x$ , so  $|\Psi'(x)| \leq \pi^2 r/2 + r$  after using  $\sin 2\pi x \leq 2\pi |x|$ . Therefore, by the mean value theorem, there is some z lying between  $x_1$ and  $x_2$  (so  $|z| \leq r$  too)

$$
|\Psi(x_1) - \Psi(x_2)| = |\Psi'(z)||x_1 - x_2| \le \frac{\pi^2 r}{2} + r.
$$

If now we choose  $r = 1/(4\pi^2)$ , then  $\gamma = \pi^2 r/2 + r = 1/2 + 1/(4\pi^2) < 1$ . By the theorem on perturbation of identity, the equation  $x + \Psi(x) = a$  is solvable for  $a, |a| \le R$ , where

$$
R = \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4\pi^2}\right) \frac{1}{4\pi^2} .
$$

Now, we check that  $0.0003 < R$ , so  $x + \Psi(x) = 0.0012$  is solvable, which in turn implies that the original problem is also solvable.

5. Can you solve the system of equations

$$
x + y^4 = 0, \quad y - x^2 = 0.015 ?
$$

**Solution.** Here we work on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\Phi(x, y) = (x, y) + \Psi(x, y)$  where  $\Psi(x, y) = (\Psi_1(x, y), \Psi_2(x, y)) =$  $(-y^4, x^2)$ . We have

$$
\frac{\partial \Psi_1}{\partial x} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial \Psi_1}{\partial y} = -4y^3 \ , \quad \frac{\partial \Psi_2}{\partial x} = 2x \ , \quad \frac{\partial \Psi_2}{\partial y} = 0 \ .
$$

It follows that

$$
|\Psi(p) - \Psi(q)| \le \sqrt{16y^6 + 4x^2}|p - q| \le 2r\sqrt{1 + 4r^2}|p - q|,
$$

where  $p = (x_1, y_1), q = (x_2, y_2), \text{ and } |p - q|$  is the Euclidean distance between p and q. We choose  $r = 1/3$ , so  $\gamma = 2r\sqrt{1+4r^2} = 0.6996$ . Then  $R = (1 - \gamma)r = 0.2$ . Now, the point  $(0, 0.015)$  satisfies  $|(0, 0.015)| = 0.015 < 0.2$ , so this system has a solution  $(x, y)$  satisfying  $|(x, y)| < 1/3$ .

Note. Here we have used the discussion on page 8 in the revised notes:  $\Psi$  is a contraction when

$$
\sqrt{\sum_{i,j} (\partial \Psi_i/\partial x_j)^2} < 1.
$$

6. Can you solve the system of equations

$$
x + y - x2 = 0, \quad x - y + xy \sin y = -0.005 ?
$$

**Solution.** First we rewrite the system in the form of  $I + \Psi$ . Indeed, by adding up and subtracting the equations, we see that the system is equivalent to

$$
x + (-x2 + xy \sin y)/2 = -0.0025, \quad y + (-x2 - xy \sin y)/2 = 0.0025.
$$

Now we can take

$$
\Psi(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}(-x^2 + xy\sin y, -x^2 - xy\sin y),
$$

and proceed as in the previous problem.

7. Show that the integral equation

$$
y(x) = \alpha e^x - \int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{3 - t} y^3(t) dt,
$$

is solvable for sufficiently small  $\alpha$ . Give an estimate on the smallness of  $\alpha$ . Solution. We take

$$
\Phi(y)(x) = y(x) + \int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{3 - t} y^3(t) dt,
$$

so that

$$
\Psi(y)(x) = \int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{3 - t} y^3(t) dt.
$$

We have

$$
\begin{aligned} |\Psi(y_1)(x) - \Psi(y_2)(x)| &= \left| \int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{3 - t} (y_1^3(t) - y_2^3(t)) \, dt \right| \\ &\leq \left| \int_0^2 \frac{1}{3 - t} (y_1^2(t) + |y_1(t)y_2(t)| + y_2^2(t)) |y_1(t) - y_2(t)| \, dt \right| \\ &\leq \left| \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 (y_1^2(t) + |y_1(t)y_2(t)| + y_2^2(t)) \, dt \|y_1 - y_2\|_{\infty} \right|, \end{aligned}
$$

after noting  $1/(3-t) \leq 1/2$  for  $t \in [0,1]$ . Therefore, for  $y \in B_r(0)$ ,

$$
\|\Psi(y_1)-\Psi(y_2)\|_{\infty}\leq \frac{3r^2}{2}\|y_1-y_2\|_{\infty},
$$

and  $\Psi$  is a contraction as long as  $3r^2/2$  is less than 1. Let us choose  $r = \sqrt{ }$  $2/2$  so that  $3r^2/2 = 3/4 < 1$ . By using the theorem on Perturbation of Identity, the equation  $\Phi(y) = \alpha e^x$  is solvable in  $B_r(0)$  as long as  $\|\alpha e^x\|_{\infty} \le R = (1 - 3/4)r = \sqrt{2}/8$ . As  $e^x \le e$  $\mathcal{L}(y) = \alpha e^{-y}$  is solvable in  $D_r(0)$  as long as  $\|\alpha e^{-y}\|_{\infty} \leq n = (1 - \frac{3}{4})r = \frac{1}{2} \times 2$ . As  $e^{-y}$  on [0, 1], we conclude that whenever  $|\alpha| \leq \sqrt{2}e^{-1}/8$ , this integral equation is solvable.

8. Let  $A = (a_{ij})$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Show that the matrix  $I + A$  is invertible if  $\sum_{i,j} a_{ij}^2 < 1$ . Give an example showing that  $I + A$  could become singular when  $\sum_{i,j} a_{ij}^2 = 1$ .

**Solution.** Let  $\Phi(x) = Ix + Ax$  so  $\Psi(x) = Ax$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . We have

$$
\|\Psi(x_1)-\Psi(x_2)\|_2=\|A(x_1-x_2)\|_2\leq\|A\|\|x\|_2.
$$

 $\sum_{i,j} a_{ij}^2$ . Take  $\gamma = \sum_{i,j} |a_{ij}|$ . If  $\sum_{i,j} a_{ij} < 1$ ,  $\Psi$  is a contraction and there is only one root As explained in Notes, we have the following estimate on the operator norm,  $||A|| \le$ of the equation  $\Phi(x) = 0$  in the ball  $B_r(0)$ . However, since we already know  $\Phi(0) = 0, 0$ is the unique root. Now, we claim that  $I + A$  is non-singular, for there is some  $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfying  $(I + A)z = 0$ , we can find a small number  $\alpha$  such that  $\alpha z \in B_r(0)$ . By what we have just shown,  $\alpha z = 0$  so  $z = 0$ , that is,  $I + A$  is non-singular and thus invertible.

Note. See how linearity plays its role in this problem.

9. Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be  $C^2$  and  $f(x_0) = 0, f'(x_0) \neq 0$ . Show that there exists some  $\rho > 0$  such that

$$
Tx = x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}, \quad x \in (x_0 - \rho, x_0 + \rho),
$$

is a contraction. This provides a justification for Newton's method in finding roots for an equation.

**Solution.**  $T'(x) = \frac{f(x)f''(x)}{f'(x)^2}$  $\frac{f(x)}{f'(x)^2}$ . Since f is  $C^2$  and  $f(x_0) = 0, f'(x_0) \neq 0$ , it follows that T is  $C^1$  in a neighborhood of  $x_0$  with  $T(x_0) = x_0$ ,  $T'(x_0) = 0$  and there exists  $\rho > 0$ 

 $|T'(x)| < 1, \quad x \in (x_0 - 2\rho, x_0 + 2\rho),$ 

As a result, T is a contraction in  $[x_0 - \rho, x_0 + \rho]$ .

10. Consider the iteration

$$
x_{n+1} = \alpha x_n (1 - x_n), \ x_1 \in [0, 1] \ .
$$

Find

- (a) The range of  $\alpha$  so that  $\{x_n\}$  remains in  $[0, 1]$ .
- (b) The range of  $\alpha$  so that the iteration has a unique fixed point 0 in [0, 1].
- (c) Show that for  $\alpha \in [0,1]$  the fixed point 0 is attracting in the sense:  $x_n \to 0$  whenever  $x_0 \in [0, 1].$

**Solution.** Let  $Tx = \alpha x(1-x)$ . The max of T attains at  $1/2$  so the maximal value is  $\alpha/4$ . Therefore, the range of  $\alpha$  is [0, 4] so that T maps [0, 1] to itself. Next, 0 is always a fixed point of T. To get no other, we set  $x = \alpha x(1-x)$  and solve for x and get  $x = (\alpha - 1)/\alpha$ . So there is no other fixed point if  $\alpha \in [0,1]$ . Finally, it is clear that T becomes a contraction when  $\alpha \in [0, 1)$ , so the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  with  $x_0 \in [0, 1]$ ,  $x_n = T^n x_0$ , always tends to 0 as  $n \to \infty$ . Although T is not a contraction when  $\alpha = 1$ , one can still use elementary mean (that is,  $\{x_n\}$  is always decreasing,) to show that 0 is an attracting fixed point.

11. Show that every continuous function from [0, 1] to itself admits a fixed point. Here we don't need it a contraction. Suggestion: Consider the sign of  $g(x) = f(x) - x$  at 0, 1 where  $f$  is the given function.

**Solution.** Let  $f \in C[0,1]$ . Clearly, if  $f(0) = 0$ , then 0 is a fixed point. So assume  $f(0) \neq 0$ . Here we take  $f(0) > 0$ . Consider the continuous function  $g(x) = f(x) - x$ . We have  $g(0) = f(0) > 0$  and  $g(1) = f(1) - 1 \le 0$ . If equality holds, then  $f(1) = 1$ , 1 is a fixed point. If inequality holds, that is,  $g(1) < 0$ , by the mean-value theorem there is some  $\xi \in (0,1)$  such that  $g(\xi) = 0$ , that is,  $f(\xi) - \xi = 0$ , so  $\xi$  is a fixed point. The case  $f(0) < 0$ can be handled similarly.

Note. This example shows that every continuous function from  $[0, 1]$  to itself, not only contractions, admits a least one fixed point. (But not necessarily unique.) Similar result holds for all continuous maps on a compact, convex subset in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to itself. It is called Brouwer's fixed point theorem.