

MASDOC A1
Linear Partial Differential Equations
Problems & Solutions

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Problems One.

1. Let $\{x_n\}$ be a Cauchy sequence in a normed space $(X, \|\cdot\|)$. Show that if x_n has a subsequence that converges to some $x \in X$, then $x_n \rightarrow x$.

Given $\epsilon > 0$ choose N such that $\|x_n - x_m\| < \epsilon/2$ for all $n, m \geq N$. Then choose J such that $\|x_{n_j} - x\| < \epsilon/2$ for all $j \geq J$. Then for all $n \geq n_J$,

$$\|x_n - x\| \leq \|x_n - x_{n_J}\| + \|x_{n_J} - x\| < \epsilon$$

and so $x_n \rightarrow x$.

2. Prove the polarisation identity

$$4(x, y) = \|x + y\|^2 - \|x - y\|^2 + i\|x + iy\|^2 - i\|x - iy\|^2$$

in a complex inner product space.

Expand the right-hand side as inner products:

$$\begin{aligned} (x + y, x + y) - (x - y, x - y) + i(x + iy, x + iy) - i(x - iy, x - iy) \\ = \|x\|^2 + 2(x, y) + (y, x) + \|y\|^2 - (\|x\|^2 - (x, y) - (y, x) + \|y\|^2) \\ + i(\|x\|^2 + i(y, x) - i(x, y) + \|y\|^2) - i(\|x\|^2 - i(y, x) + i(x, y) + \|y\|^2) \\ = 4(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

*3. Suppose that $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $y_n \rightarrow y$ in H . Show that

$$(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow (x, y).$$

4. Consider $C^0([0, 1])$. Show that neither the supremum norm

$$\|f\|_\infty = \sup_{x \in [0, 1]} |f(x)|$$

nor the L^1 norm

$$\|f\|_{L^1} = \int_0^1 |f(x)| dx$$

can be derived from an inner product.

We have to find functions f and g for which the parallelogram law is violated. For the sup norm, consider $f(x) = |x - (1/2)|$ and $g(x) = (1/2) - f(x)$. Then $\|f\|_\infty = \|g\|_\infty = 1/2$, $\|f + g\|_\infty = 1$, and $\|f - g\|_\infty = 1/2$. So

$$\frac{5}{4} = \|f + g\|^2 + \|f - g\|^2 \neq 2(\|f\|^2 + \|g\|^2) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

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For the L^1 norm we can use the same example, since $\|f\|_{L^1} = \|g\|_{L^1} = \|f - g\|_{L^1} = 1/4$ and $\|f + g\|_{L^1} = 1/2$.

5. Show that U^\perp is always a closed linear subspace of H .

If $x_n \in U^\perp$ with $x_n \rightarrow x$ then, using question 3, for any $u \in U$

$$(x, u) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_n, u) = 0,$$

i.e. $x \in U^\perp$.

*6. Show that if U is a closed linear subspace of H then $(U^\perp)^\perp = U$.

7. Show that if A is closed and $\frac{1}{2}(x + y) \in A$ whenever $x, y \in A$ then A is convex.

Take $x, y \in A$ and suppose that $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A$ for every $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ such that $\lambda = a2^{-k}$, where $a \in \mathbb{N}$. Then given $\lambda = b2^{-(k+1)}$ with $b \in \mathbb{N}$ and b odd, clearly one has

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{2}(b - 1)2^{-(k+1)} + \frac{1}{2}(b + 1)2^{-(k+1)}.$$

It follows that $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A$ for every $\lambda = b2^{-(k+1)}$, $b \in \mathbb{N}$. Now simply use the fact that for any $\lambda \in [0, 1]$, $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y$ can be approximated by elements of the form $\lambda_n x + (1 - \lambda_n)y$, where $\lambda_n = a_n 2^{-n}$; since A is closed, it follows that $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in A$.

8. A set $\{e_j\}_{j=1}^n$ is orthonormal if

$$(e_i, e_j) = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Show that an orthonormal set is linearly independent.

If $\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j e_j = 0$ then taking the inner product with e_k ($k = 1, \dots, n$) shows that $\alpha_k = 0$. Since this is true for each k , the set is linearly independent.

9. (In this question life is much easier if you take H to be real.) The space E spanned by $\{e_j\}_{j=1}^n$ consists of all elements of H of the form

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j e_j \quad \alpha_j \in \mathbb{K}.$$

Show that the closest point to x in E is given by

$$\hat{x} = \sum_{j=1}^n (x, e_j) e_j.$$

(You should try to do this (i) directly and (ii) using the fact that $x - \hat{x} \in E^\perp$ – (ii) will be much easier.)

(i) Directly: consider

$$\begin{aligned} \|x - \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j e_j\|^2 &= (x - \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j e_j, x - \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k e_k) \\ &= \|x\|^2 - 2(x, \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j e_j) + \sum_{j=1}^n |\alpha_j|^2 \\ &= \|x\|^2 - \sum_{j=1}^n |(x, e_j)|^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n |(x, e_j)|^2 - 2\alpha_j (x, e_j) + |\alpha_j|^2 \\ &= \|x\|^2 - \sum_{j=1}^n |(x, e_j)|^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n [(x, e_j) - \alpha_j]^2. \end{aligned}$$

This expression is clearly minimised when $\alpha_j = (x, e_j)$.

(ii) If $\hat{x} = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j e_j$ and $x - \hat{x} \in E^\perp$ then for each $k = 1, \dots, n$ we must have

$$(x - \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j e_j, e_k) = (x, e_k) - \alpha_k = 0,$$

i.e. $\alpha_k = (x, e_k)$.

10. Let X and Y be two normed spaces. Show that

$$\|L\|_{\mathcal{L}(X,Y)} = \sup_{x \in X: \|x\|_X=1} \|Lx\|_Y.$$

Denote M the right-hand side by M , and note that for any $x \in X$,

$$\|Lx\|_Y = \left\| L \frac{x}{\|x\|_X} \right\|_Y \|x\|_X \leq M \|x\|_X,$$

so that $\|L\|_{\mathcal{L}(X,Y)} \leq M$. Since $\|Lx\|_Y \leq \|L\|_{\mathcal{L}(X,Y)} \|x\|_X$ for any $x \in X$, it is clear that $M \leq \|L\|_{\mathcal{L}(X,Y)}$.

11. Show that the map $T : \ell^2 \rightarrow \ell^2$ defined by

$$T\underline{x} = (x_1, \frac{x_2}{2}, \frac{x_3}{3}, \dots)$$

is bounded, but that $R(T)$, the range of T , is not closed. [Recall that $R(T) = "T(\ell^2)" = \{\underline{y} \in \ell^2 : \underline{y} = T\underline{x} \text{ for some } x \in \ell^2\}$.

Clearly

$$\|T\underline{x}\|_{\ell^2}^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{|x_j|^2}{j^2} \leq \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |x_j|^2 = \|\underline{x}\|_{\ell^2}^2,$$

and so T is bounded. However, consider $\underline{x}_n = (1, 1, \dots, 1, 0, 0, \dots)$, i.e. n 1s followed by zeros. Then $\underline{x}_n \in \ell^2$, and so is $T\underline{x}_n = (1, 1/2, \dots, 1/n, 0, 0, \dots)$. But while $T\underline{x}_n \rightarrow \underline{z}$ with $z_j = 1/j$, there is no $\underline{x} \in \ell^2$ with $T\underline{x} = \underline{z}$, since $(1, 1, 1, 1, \dots) \notin \ell^2$.

12. Suppose that $A : H \rightarrow H$ is a bounded linear operator. Show that there exists a unique $A^ : H \rightarrow H$, also a bounded linear operator, such that

$$(Au, v) = (u, A^*v) \quad \text{for every } u, v \in H.$$

The operator A^* is known as the (Hilbert) adjoint of A .

13. Prove the contraction mapping theorem in a Hilbert space: if $f : H \rightarrow H$ is a map such that

$$\|f(u) - f(v)\| \leq \theta \|u - v\| \quad \text{for all } u, v \in H$$

for some $\theta < 1$ then there exists a unique $u \in H$ such that $f(u) = u$.

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \|f^{n+1}(x) - f^n(x)\| &\leq \theta \|f^n(x) - f^{n-1}(x)\| \\ &\leq \theta^n \|f(x) - x\|, \end{aligned}$$

and so if $m > n$

$$\begin{aligned} \|f^m(x) - f^n(x)\| &\leq \sum_{j=n}^{m-1} \theta^j \|f(x) - x\| \\ &\leq \left(\sum_{j=n}^{\infty} \theta^j \right) \|f(x) - x\| \\ &= \frac{\theta^n}{1 - \theta} \|f(x) - x\|. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that $\{f^n(x)\}$ is Cauchy; since H is complete, $f^n(x) \rightarrow x^*$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then

$$f(x^*) = f\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^n(x)\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^{n+1}(x) = x^*,$$

so $f(x^*) = x^*$ as required. If x^* and y^* are both fixed points of f then

$$\|x^* - y^*\| = \|f(x^*) - f(y^*)\| \leq \theta \|x^* - y^*\|$$

which is impossible unless $x^* = y^*$.

Problems Two.

*1. Show that ℓ^p , $1 \leq p < \infty$, is complete.

2. Suppose that $(X, \|\cdot\|)$ is a complete normed space, and that A is a subspace of X . Show that the closure of A in X , equipped with the norm $\|\cdot\|$, is a complete normed space. [One has $x \in \bar{A}$ iff $x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$, with $a_n \in A$.]

We need A to be a subspace of X (a subset will not do). Take a Cauchy sequence $\{x_n\} \in A$. Then since this is also a Cauchy sequence in X it converges; since A is closed the limit must lie in A , and hence A is complete.

3. Show that c_0 (the subspace of ℓ^∞ consisting of all sequences that converge to zero) equipped with the ℓ^∞ norm is separable.

We show that the set of all sequences with only finitely many non-zero components, all of which are rational, is dense (this set is countable). Given $\underline{x} \in c_0$, there exists an N such that $|x_j| < \epsilon/2$ for every $j \geq N$. To approximate \underline{x} to within ϵ we therefore only need approximate the first N components to within $\epsilon/2$. Clearly we can do this using rationals (choose $q_j \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $|q_j - x_j| < \epsilon/2N$ for $j = 1, \dots, N$).

4. Show that the product of a finite number of separable spaces is separable; and that a closed linear subspace of a separable space is separable.

If $\{x_j\}$ is a countable dense subset of X and $\{y_j\}$ is a countable dense subset of Y then clearly the set $\{(x_j, y_k)\}$ is a countable dense subset of $X \times Y$, and the result as stated follows by induction.

Now, if M is a closed linear subspace of X , start with a countable dense subset $\{x_j\}$ of X . Fix $\epsilon > 0$, and for each x_j for which $B(x_j, \epsilon/2) \cap M \neq \emptyset$, choose an element $m_j \in M$. Then any $m \in M$ lies in one of the $B(x_j, \epsilon/2)$;

since m_j does too, it follows that $m \in B(m_j, \epsilon)$. Apply this construction for $\epsilon = 2^{-k}$ for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$; the union of the resulting m_j s provides a countable dense subset of M .

5. Suppose that $\{f_n\} \in C_c^0(\Omega)$, and that $\{f_n\}$ is Cauchy in the sup norm. Show that $f_n \rightarrow f$, where $f \in C^0(\bar{\Omega})$ with $f = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$. Show further that any such f can be obtained as the uniform limit of functions in $C_c^0(\Omega)$. [This shows that $C_0^0(\bar{\Omega})$ – continuous functions on $\bar{\Omega}$ that are zero on the boundary – is the completion of $C_c^0(\Omega)$ wrt the supremum norm.]

First, clearly $f_n \in C^0(\bar{\Omega})$, and since $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly on Ω , $f \in C^0(\bar{\Omega})$. Furthermore if $x \in \partial\Omega$ then $f_n(x) = 0$ for every n , whence $f = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$.

Now, suppose that $f \in C^0(\bar{\Omega})$ with $f = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$. Let

$$f_\epsilon(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & |f(x)| > 2\epsilon \\ 0 & |f(x)| < \epsilon \\ f(x) \left[\frac{|f(x)|}{\epsilon} - 1 \right] & \epsilon < |f(x)| < 2\epsilon. \end{cases}$$

Then f_ϵ converges uniformly to f on Ω , and since f is uniformly continuous on Ω , given any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(x)| < \epsilon$ whenever $\text{dist}(x, \partial\Omega) < \delta$, so that f_ϵ has compact support.

6. The Stone–Weierstrass Theorem states that if K is a compact space and A is an algebra of real-valued continuous functions on K such that for all $x, y \in K$ with $x \neq y$, there exists an $f \in A$ such that $f(x) \neq f(y)$, and for every $x \in K$ there exists an $f \in A$ such that $f(x) \neq 0$, then A is dense in $C(K; \mathbb{R})$. [An algebra is a set on which one can define multiplication and addition.] Deduce that the space of polynomials is dense in $C^k(\bar{\Omega})$ for any $k \geq 0$, where Ω is a bounded subset of \mathbb{R}^n .

The space of polynomials is an algebra on $\bar{\Omega}$. Given $x, y \in \bar{\Omega}$ with $x \neq y$, they must have at least one component, say the j th, distinct. So one can consider the polynomial x_j . For every $x \in \bar{\Omega}$ we can consider the polynomial $f \equiv 1$. The conditions of the theorem are then satisfied.

7. Show by induction that $C^k(\bar{\Omega})$ is complete wrt the C^k norm.

We give the proof for $k = 1$, since the notation becomes significantly more involved moving from C^k to C^{k+1} . Since $C^0(\bar{\Omega})$ is complete, we know that $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly on $\bar{\Omega}$, and that $\partial_j f_n \rightarrow g_j$ for some $g_j \in C^0(\bar{\Omega})$ uniformly on $\bar{\Omega}$. We just have to show that $g_j = \partial_j f$.

Since $f_n \in C^1$, we know that

$$f_n(x + he_j) = f_n(x) + \int_0^h \partial_j f_n(x + re_j) dr.$$

Since the integrand is continuous and converges uniformly, we easily deduce that

$$f(x + he_j) = f(x) + \int_0^h g_j(x + re_j) dr,$$

which implies that $g_j = \partial_j f$ as required.

8*. Show that if $f \in L^p$, $g \in L^q$, and $h \in L^r$, where

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} + \frac{1}{r} = 1,$$

then $fgh \in L^1$ with

$$\int |fgh| \leq \|f\|_{L^p} \|g\|_{L^q} \|h\|_{L^r}.$$

9. Suppose that $p < r < q$ and

$$\frac{1}{r} = \frac{\alpha}{p} + \frac{1-\alpha}{q}.$$

Show that if $f \in L^p$ and $f \in L^q$ then

$$\|f\|_{L^r} \leq \|f\|_{L^p}^\alpha \|f\|_{L^q}^{1-\alpha}.$$

Write

$$\int |f|^r = \int |f|^{r\alpha} |f|^{r(1-\alpha)}$$

and use Hölder's inequality with exponents $p/r\alpha$ and $q/r(1-\alpha)$, noting that

$$\frac{r\alpha}{p} + \frac{r(1-\alpha)}{q} = 1.$$

Then

$$\int |f|^r = \left(\int |f|^p \right)^{\alpha r/p} \left(\int |f|^q \right)^{(1-\alpha)r/p},$$

which gives the required inequality.

10. Show that L^∞ is complete.

If $\{f_n\}$ is Cauchy in L^∞ then there exists a measure zero subset A of Ω such that

$$|f_n(x)| \leq \|f_n\|_\infty \quad \text{and} \quad |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| \leq \|f_n - f_m\|_\infty$$

for every $x \notin A$ and every $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$. It follows that f_n converges uniformly on $\Omega \setminus A$ to a bounded function f ; setting $f(x) = 0$ for every $x \in A$ we obtain a function $f \in L^\infty(\Omega)$ such that $f_n \rightarrow f$ in $L^\infty(\Omega)$.

11. Show that $W^{k,p}$ is separable for $1 \leq p < \infty$.

The map $W^{k,p} \rightarrow \prod_{0 \leq |\alpha| \leq k} L^p$ given by

$$u \mapsto (\partial^\alpha u)_{|\alpha| \leq k}$$

is an isometry of $W^{k,p}$ onto a closed subspace of $\prod_{0 \leq |\alpha| \leq k} L^p$. The space $\prod_{0 \leq |\alpha| \leq k} L^p$ is a finite product of separable spaces, and so separable; so are all its closed subspaces.

12. Suppose that $f \in W^{k,p}$ and that $|\alpha| + |\beta| \leq k$. Show that $\partial^\alpha(\partial^\beta f) = \partial^{\alpha+\beta} f$.

Take $\varphi \in C_c^\infty(\Omega)$; then $\partial^\alpha \varphi \in C_c^\infty(\Omega)$, so we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \int (\partial^\beta f) \partial^\alpha \varphi &= (-1)^{|\beta|} \int f \partial^{\alpha+\beta} \varphi \\ &= (-1)^{|\beta|} (-1)^{|\alpha+\beta|} \int (\partial^{\alpha+\beta} f) \varphi \\ &= (-1)^{|\alpha|} \int (\partial^{\alpha+\beta} f) \varphi, \end{aligned}$$

whence $\partial^{\alpha+\beta} f = \partial^\alpha(\partial^\beta f)$, by definition.

*13. Show that the function $|x|^{-s} \in W^{1,p}(B(0,1))$, where $B(0,1)$ is the unit ball in \mathbb{R}^n , iff $s < (n-p)/p$. Deduce that if r_k is a countable dense subset of $B(0,1)$, and $s < (n-p)/p$ then the function

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 2^{-j} |x - r_j|^{-s}$$

is in $W^{1,p}(B(0,1))$, but is unbounded on any open subset of $B(0,1)$.

14. Use separation of variables to find a non-zero solution of the equation

$$\sum_{0 \leq |\alpha| \leq 1} (-1)^{|\alpha|} \partial^{2\alpha} f = 0$$

for a bounded open set $\Omega \subset [-1, 1]^2$.

First write the equation explicitly,

$$-f_{xx} - f_{yy} + f = 0.$$

Set $f(x, y) = X(x)Y(y)$ and then

$$-X_{xx}Y - XY_{yy} + XY = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{X_{xx}}{X} + \frac{Y_{yy}}{Y} = 1,$$

Put

$$X_{xx} = \lambda X \quad \text{and} \quad Y_{yy} = (1 - \lambda)Y;$$

with $\lambda = 1/2$ we can take $X(x) = e^{x/\sqrt{2}}$ and $Y(y) = e^{y/\sqrt{2}}$; then $f(x, y) = e^{(x+y)/\sqrt{2}}$ is a non-zero solution of the equation.

Problems Three.

We say that a sequence $\{\phi_n\} \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ converges to $\phi \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ if there exists a compact set K such that $\text{supp}(\phi_n) \subset K$ for all n , and $\partial^\alpha \phi_n \rightarrow \partial^\alpha \phi$ uniformly on K for all ϕ . A *distribution* is a bounded linear function f on $C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$ such that whenever $\phi_n \rightarrow \phi$,

$$f(\phi_n) \rightarrow f(\phi).$$

We write $\mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R}^n)$ for the set of all distributions on \mathbb{R}^n .

1. Show that if $f \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R}^n)$ then $\partial^\alpha f$ defined by

$$[\partial^\alpha f](\phi) = (-1)^{|\alpha|} f(\partial^\alpha \phi)$$

is also a distribution.

Suppose that $\phi_n \in C_c^\infty$ converges to ϕ ; then $\partial^\alpha \phi_n$ converges to $\partial^\alpha \phi$ in C_c^∞ , and so

$$[\partial^\alpha f](\phi_n) = (-1)^{|\alpha|} f(\partial^\alpha \phi_n) \rightarrow (-1)^{|\alpha|} f(\partial^\alpha \phi)$$

since f is a distribution; but by definition the limit is $[\partial^\alpha f](\phi)$, and so $\partial^\alpha f$ is a distribution.

2. Any $f \in L_{\text{loc}}^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ gives rise to a distribution via the definition

$$L_f(\phi) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x)\phi(x) \, dx.$$

Show that if g is the weak derivative $\partial_j f$, then $\partial_j L_f = L_g$, i.e. 'the distribution derivative agrees with the weak derivative when it exists'.

The equality of distributions $\partial_j L_f = L_g$ means that for every $\phi \in C_c^\infty(\Omega)$ we have

$$(\partial_j L_f)(\phi) = -L_f(\partial_j \phi) = - \underbrace{\int f(\partial_j \phi)}_{= \int g\phi} = L_g(\phi).$$

The bracketed expression says precisely that $\partial_j f = g$ (we know that weak derivatives are unique).

3. Show that the approximating sequence used in Theorem 2.32 also converges uniformly on $\bar{\Omega}$ if $f \in H^k(\Omega) \cap C^0(\bar{\Omega})$ (use Proposition 2.9).

Note that $f_n = g_n|_\Omega$, where the g_n are obtained by mollifying a function $g \in H_0^k(\Omega^*)$ that is an extension of f ; it follows from Proposition 2.9 that the g_n converge to g uniformly on compact subsets of Ω^* , and in particular on $\bar{\Omega}$. Since $g = f$ on $\bar{\Omega}$, it follows that f_n converges uniformly to f on $\bar{\Omega}$, as claimed.

*4. Show that the $H^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ norm and the norm

$$\left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (1 + |\xi|^2)^k |\hat{f}(\xi)|^2 d\xi \right)^{1/2}$$

are equivalent. [Recall that $(\partial^\alpha f)^\wedge = (i\xi)^\alpha \hat{f}$ and that $\|\hat{f}\|_{L^2} = \|f\|_{L^2}$.]

5. Show that

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{(1 + |\xi|^2)^k} d\xi < \infty$$

if and only if $k > n/2$.

We have

$$\int_{|x| \leq R} \frac{1}{(1 + |\xi|^2)^k} d\xi = c \int_0^R \frac{1}{(1 + r^2)^k} r^{n-1} dr$$

and since

$$c' + \frac{1}{2} \int_1^R r^{n-1-2k} dr < \int_0^R \frac{r^{n-1}}{(1 + r^2)^k} dr < c' + \int_1^R r^{n-1-2k}$$

the integral is finite iff $n - 1 - 2k < -1$, i.e. iff $k > n/2$.

6. Show that the unbounded function

$$f(x) = \log \log \left(1 + \frac{1}{|x|} \right)$$

is an element of $H^1(B(0, 1))$, where $B(0, 1)$ is the unit ball in \mathbb{R}^2 .

First note that

$$\int_B \left[\log \log \left(1 + \frac{1}{|x|} \right) \right]^2 dx dy = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 r \log \log(1 + 1/r) dr d\theta$$

is finite, since the integrand is bounded.

Away from $x = 0$ the derivative of f is

$$\partial_i f(x) = g_i(x) = \frac{1}{\log(1 + 1/|x|)} \frac{x_i}{|x|^2(1 + |x|)},$$

whence

$$\int_B |g|^2 dx dy = 2\pi \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\log(1 + 1/r^2)} \frac{1}{r(1 + r)^2} dr.$$

With the substitution $u = 1/r$ the integral becomes

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{u + (1/u)} \frac{1}{\log(1 + u^2)} du < \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{u(\log u)^2} du < \infty.$$

It remains to check that g really is the weak derivative of f throughout $B(0, 1)$: to this end take $\varphi \in C_c^\infty(B(0, 1))$, and then away from the singularity at $x = 0$ we have

$$\int_{B(0,1) \setminus B(0,\epsilon)} f \partial_i \varphi = - \int_{B(0,1) \setminus B(0,\epsilon)} g_i \varphi + \int_{|x|=\epsilon} f \varphi n_i dS,$$

where n_i is the outward normal on $\partial B(0, \epsilon)$. The boundary term can be bounded according to

$$\left| \int_{|x|=\epsilon} f \varphi n_i dS \right| \leq \|\varphi\|_\infty \int_{|x|=\epsilon} \log \log(1 + \epsilon^{-1}) dS \leq C\epsilon \log \log(1 + \epsilon^{-1}),$$

which tends to zero as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, showing that g_i is indeed the weak derivative $\partial_i f$.

*7. Show that if $f \in H^k(\mathbb{R}^n)$ then for any $0 < \alpha < \min(k - n/2, 1)$ there exists a constant C such that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq C \|f\|_{H^k} |x - y|^\alpha.$$

8. In the proof of the Arzelà-Ascoli Theorem, it is relatively straightforward to find a subsequence such that $f_{n_j}(x_k)$ converges for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$, where the $\{x_k\}$ are points in K such that for every $x \in K$ and $\delta > 0$, there exists an N such that

$$|x - x_k| < \delta \quad \text{for some } k \in \{1, \dots, N\}.$$

(Can you prove the existence of such a collection of points? And of such a subsequence?) Given this, use the equicontinuity of the $\{f_n\}$ to show that f_{n_j} converges uniformly on K .

We give the full proof. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have

$$K \subset \bigcup_{x \in K} B(x, 2^{-n}).$$

since K is compact, a finite number of these balls still cover K , giving a finite set of points such that any $k \in K$ lies within 2^{-n} of one of these points. Taking the sequence of these points created with ever larger choices of n gives the set $\{x_k\}$ in the question.

We now perform the famous ‘diagonal argument’. Since $f_n(x_1)$ is a bounded sequence of real numbers, we can take a subsequence of $\{f_n\}$, call it $f_{1,n}$, such that $f_{1,n}(x_1)$ converges. Now observe that $f_{1,n}(x_2)$ is a bounded sequence of real numbers, so we can take a subsequence of $f_{1,n}$, call it $f_{2,n}$, such that $f_{2,n}(x_2)$ converges. Note that $f_{2,n}(x_1)$ is a subsequence of $f_{1,n}(x_1)$; since $f_{1,n}(x_1)$ converges, $f_{2,n}(x_2)$ still converges. Now observe that $f_{2,n}(x_3)$ is a bounded sequence of real numbers... We continue inductively, obtaining nested subsequences $f_{k,n}$ such that

$$f_{k,n}(x_j) \text{ converges as } n \rightarrow \infty \text{ for every } j = 1, \dots, k.$$

The ‘diagonal subsequence’ $f_k^* = f_{k,k}$ is such that $f_k^*(x_j)$ converges for every $j \in \mathbb{N}$.

We can now answer the question as posed. Choose $\epsilon > 0$; since the f_n are equicontinuous, there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$|x - y| < \delta \quad \Rightarrow \quad |f_n^*(x) - f_n^*(y)| < \epsilon.$$

We know that there exists an M such that for every $x \in K$ there is an x_i with $i \leq M$ such that $|x - x_i| < \delta$. Now take N large enough that

$$|f_n^*(x_i) - f_m^*(x_i)| < \epsilon/3 \quad \text{for all } m, n \geq N \quad \text{and } i = 1, \dots, M.$$

Then for any $x \in K$ choose an x_i such that $i \leq M$ and $|x - x_i| < \delta$; it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} |f_n^*(x) - f_m^*(x)| & \leq |f_n^*(x) - f_n^*(x_i)| + |f_n^*(x_i) - f_n^*(x_j)| + |f_n^*(x_j) - f_n^*(x)| \\ & \leq \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 = \epsilon, \end{aligned}$$

which shows that $\{f_n^*\}$ is Cauchy in the sup norm and hence uniformly convergent on K .

9. Suppose that $f, g, h \in H^1(\mathbb{R}^3)$. Show that

$$\left| \int fg \nabla h \, dx \right| \leq c \|f\|_{L^3} \|g\|_{H^1} \|h\|_{H^1}.$$

Note that if $f, g, h \in H^1(\mathbb{R}^3)$ then $f, g, h \in L^p(\mathbb{R}^3)$ for any $2 \leq p \leq 6$. So first we use the result of question 8 on Problems 2 with exponents $p = 3$, $q = 6$, and $r = 2$, to give

$$\left| \int fg \nabla h \, dx \right| \leq \|f\|_{L^3} \|g\|_{L^6} \|\nabla h\|_{L^2}.$$

Now use the fact that $\|g\|_{L^6} \leq c\|g\|_{H^1}$ and that $\|\nabla h\|_{L^2} \leq \|h\|_{H^1}$ to give the required inequality.

*10. Reinterpret Poisson's equation

$$-\Delta u = f \quad u|_{\partial\Omega} = 0$$

as an abstract variational problem

$$(u, \phi)_{H_0^1} = f(\phi) \quad \text{for all } \phi \in H_0^1(\Omega)$$

with $f \in H^{-1}$, and show that given $f \in H^{-1}$ the equation has a unique solution $u \in H_0^1$.

Problems Four.

1. Let V be the subspace of $H^1(\Omega)$ consisting of functions with zero integral over Ω ,

$$V = \{f \in H^1(\Omega) : \int_{\Omega} f = 0\}.$$

Arguing by contradiction, use the fact that $H^1(\Omega)$ is compactly embedded in

$L^2(\Omega)$ to show that there is a constant $C > 0$ such that

$$\|f\|_{L^2} \leq C \|\nabla f\|_{L^2} \quad \text{for all } f \in V.$$

(You may assume that if $\nabla f = 0$ almost everywhere then f is constant.)

Suppose that the result is not true; then there exists a sequence $f_n \in V$ such that

$$\|f_n\|_{L^2} \geq n \|\nabla f_n\|_{L^2}.$$

Replacing f_n by $f_n/\|f_n\|_{L^2}$ we obtain a sequence with $\|f_n\|_{L^2} = 1$ such that

$$\|\nabla f_n\|_{L^2} \leq n^{-1}.$$

In particular f_n is a bounded sequence in H^1 , and so has a subsequence that converges in L^2 to some $g \in H^1$ with $\|g\|_{L^2} = 1$ and $\int g = 0$ (since V is closed in the L^2 norm).

However, for any $\phi \in C_c^\infty(\Omega)$ we have

$$\int_{\Omega} g \partial_j \phi \, dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Omega} f_n \partial_j \phi \, dx = - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\Omega} (\partial_j f_n) \phi \, dx = 0$$

since $f_n \rightarrow g$ in L^2 and $\|\nabla f_n\|_{L^2} \leq 1/n$. It follows that g is constant on Ω , contradiction $\int g = 0$ and $\|g\|_{L^2} = 1$.

2. Examine the argument used to prove Theorem 3.2 and convince yourself that the following is also true: If $f \in L^2(\Omega)$, and $u \in H^1(\Omega)$ satisfies $Lu = f$, then for every $\Omega' \subset\subset \Omega'' \subset\subset \Omega$ there exists a constant $c_{\Omega', \Omega''}$ such that

$$\|u\|_{H^2(\Omega')} \leq c_{\Omega', \Omega''} (\|u\|_{H^1(\Omega)} + \|f\|_{L^2(\Omega'')}).$$

*3. Suppose that $u \in H_0^1(\Omega)$ is a solution of

$$(\nabla u, \nabla v) = (f, v) \quad \text{for all } v \in H_0^1(\Omega).$$

Show that if $f \in H^k(\Omega)$ then $u \in H^{k+2}(\Omega')$ for any $\Omega' \subset\subset \Omega$. [Take $w \in C_c^\infty(\Omega)$, which is dense in $H_0^1(\Omega)$, and consider the test function $v = (-1)^{|\alpha|} \partial^\alpha w$, where $|\alpha| = k$. You could do the same analysis with a more general $B(u, v)$ as in the notes, but it takes longer to write down.]

*4. Poisson's equation with Neumann boundary conditions is: find u such that

$$-\Delta u = f \text{ in } \Omega \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla u \cdot n|_{\partial\Omega} = 0,$$

(where n is the outward normal). By taking the inner product with a test function $\varphi \in C^\infty(\Omega)$ derive the weak form of the equation: find $u \in H^1(\Omega)$ such that

$$\int_{\Omega} \nabla u \cdot \nabla v \, dx = \int_{\Omega} f v \, dx \quad \text{for all } v \in H^1(\Omega).$$

*5. Show that

$$-\Delta u + \lambda u = f \text{ in } \Omega \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla u \cdot n|_{\partial\Omega} = 0,$$

has a unique weak solution $u \in H^1(\Omega)$ (i.e. solution of the weak form of the equation) $u \in H^1(\Omega)$ for every $\lambda > 0$.

6. Show that

$$-\Delta u = f \quad \nabla u \cdot n|_{\partial\Omega} = 0$$

has a solution $u \in H^1(\Omega)$ iff $\int f_{\Omega} = 0$. [Hint: use question 1]

If $(\nabla u, \nabla v) = (f, v)$ for every $v \in H^1(\Omega)$ then one can choose $v = 1$ on Ω to show that one must have $\int f = 0$. In the previous exercise we needed an extra $\lambda \|u\|^2$ with $\lambda > 0$ to show that u is coercive; in lectures we used a Poincaré inequality for the case of Dirichlet boundary conditions, and then we didn't need this additional factor - we can recover something similar here.

Note that if $\int f = 0$ then

$$(f, v) = \left(f, v - \int v \right),$$

since $\int v$ is a constant and $(f, 1) = 0$. Also

$$(\nabla u, \nabla v) = \left(\nabla u, \nabla \left(v - \int v \right) \right)$$

since $\nabla c = 0$ for any constant c . The weak form of the equation is therefore equivalent to

$$(\nabla u, \nabla v) = (f, v) \quad \text{for all } v \in V,$$

where V is the space from question 1. If we now work in V rather than H^1 then we have a Poincaré inequality $\|u\|_{L^2} \leq \|\nabla u\|_{L^2}$, and we can immediately deduce that for $u \in V$ we have

$$B(u, u) \geq \|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^2 \geq c \|u\|_{H^1}^2$$

and B is coercive. It follows that the equation has a unique solution in V ,

and hence at least one solution in H^1 (and in fact if u is a solution then $u - c$ is a solution for any $c \in \mathbb{R}$).

7. Show that any compact operator is bounded. (Consider the image of the closed unit ball.)

If $T : X \rightarrow Y$ is compact then $\overline{TB_X(0,1)}$ is compact. Any compact set is bounded, so $TB_X(0,1) \subset B_Y(0,M)$ for some M ; it follows immediately that $\|T\|_{\mathcal{L}(X,Y)} \leq M$.

8. Check that the Gram–Schmidt process produces an orthonormal set.

Suppose that $\tilde{e}_1, \dots, \tilde{e}_n$ are orthonormal. Given e_{n+1} , we construct

$$\hat{e}_{n+1} = e_{n+1} - \sum_{j=1}^n (e_{n+1}, \tilde{e}_j) \tilde{e}_j \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{e}_{n+1} = \frac{\hat{e}_{n+1}}{\|\hat{e}_{n+1}\|}.$$

Clearly $\|\tilde{e}_{n+1}\| = 1$; we only have to check that \tilde{e}_{n+1} is orthogonal to $\tilde{e}_1, \dots, \tilde{e}_n$. Fix $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$; then

$$\begin{aligned} (\tilde{e}_{n+1}, \tilde{e}_k) &= \frac{1}{\|\hat{e}_{n+1}\|} \left(e_{n+1} - \sum_{j=1}^n (e_{n+1}, \tilde{e}_j) \tilde{e}_j, \tilde{e}_k \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\|\hat{e}_{n+1}\|} [(e_{n+1}, \tilde{e}_k) - (e_{n+1}, \tilde{e}_k)] = 0, \end{aligned}$$

since $\{\tilde{e}_1, \dots, \tilde{e}_n\}$ are orthonormal.

9. Show that if $T \in \mathcal{L}(H, H)$ is invertible (i.e. the equation $Tx = y$ has a unique solution for every $y \in H$) then $\text{Ker}(T) = \{0\}$. Show that the reverse implication does not hold.

If $Tx = y$ has a unique solution for any $y \in H$ but $\text{Ker}(T)$ contains a non-zero element z then $T(x + \alpha z) = Tx = y$ for any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. So invertibility of T implies that $\text{Ker}(T) = \{0\}$. The problem with the converse is that while T can be such that $Tx = y$ has a unique solution for every $y \in T(H)$, it may be the case that $T(H) \neq H$ even if $\text{Ker}(T) = \{0\}$. One example is the right-shift operator on ℓ^2 :

$$\sigma(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) = (0, x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots).$$

Clearly $\text{Ker}(\sigma) = \{0\}$, but σ is not onto.

10. Suppose that $f \in L^2(\Omega)$ is such that $(f, v) = 0$ for every $v \in H_0^1(\Omega)$. Show that $f = 0$.

We know that $C_c^\infty(\Omega)$ is dense in $L^2(\Omega)$; and that $C_c^\infty(\Omega) \subset H_0^1(\Omega)$. So given any $v \in L^2(\Omega)$, write $v = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n$, where $v_n \in H_0^1(\Omega)$ and the series converges in $L^2(\Omega)$. Then $(f, v) = 0$ for every $v \in L^2(\Omega)$, in particular for $v = f$ which shows that $\|f\|_{L^2}^2 = 0$ and hence $f = 0$ (in L^2 , i.e. almost everywhere).

11. Show that two eigenfunctions u and v of our elliptic problem with distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal in $H_0^1(\Omega)$ (and not just in $L^2(\Omega)$).

This is in the notes. ??? JUST LAPLACIAN

12. Take $f \in H^{-1}$ and consider the equation

$$B(u, v) = f(v) \quad \text{for every } v \in H_0^1,$$

where $B : H_0^1 \times H_0^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bilinear and bounded ($|B(u, v)| \leq \alpha \|u\|_{H^1} \|v\|_{H^1}$). Define a linear operator $A : H_0^1 \rightarrow H^{-1}$ such that this equation can be written as

$$Au = f,$$

an equation in H^{-1} . How does this relate to the argument we used in the proof of the Lax–Milgram Lemma?

Note that for each fixed $u \in H_0^1$ the map $g : H_0^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$g(v) = B(u, v)$$

is linear and bounded ($|g(v)| \leq [\alpha \|u\|_{H^1}] \|v\|_{H^1}$) it follows that $g \in H^{-1}(\Omega)$. We define $Au = g$; then A is linear and since

$$\|Au\|_{H^{-1}} = \|g\|_{H^{-1}} \leq \alpha \|u\|_{H^1}$$

it follows that A is bounded with $\|A\|_{\mathcal{L}(H_0^1, H^{-1})} \leq \alpha$. We can therefore write the equation as $Au = f$.

In the proof of the Lax–Milgram Lemma we instead viewed the equation in H_0^1 using the Riesz Representation Theorem; every element of H^{-1} can be derived from an element of H_0^1 via an inner product, so any inequality in H^* can be viewed as a corresponding equality in H (one switches to and fro via the ‘Riesz map’ $u \mapsto (\cdot, u)$ and its inverse).

Problems Five.

*1. We say that $f : (0, T) \rightarrow X$ is integrable if the function $\langle L, f(t) \rangle :$

$(0, T) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable for every $L \in X^*$, and there exists a $y \in X$ such that

$$\langle L, y \rangle = \int_0^T \langle L, f(t) \rangle dt \quad \text{for all } L \in X^*;$$

in this case we define

$$\int_0^T f(t) dt = y.$$

Show that if X is reflexive and

$$\int_0^T \|f(t)\|_X dt < \infty$$

then such a y exists and is well-defined.

2. Show that if $f : (0, T) \rightarrow X$ is integrable (as in the previous exercise) then

$$\left\| \int_0^T f(t) dt \right\|_X \leq \int_0^T \|f(t)\|_X dt.$$

Lemma 6.2 shows that given any $y \in X$ there exists an $L \in X^*$ such that $\|L\|_{X^*} = 1$ and $\langle L, y \rangle = \|y\|_X$. Using the definition of the integral from the previous exercise it follows that

$$\|y\|_X = \langle L, y \rangle = \int_0^T \langle L, f(t) \rangle dt \leq \int_0^T \|f(t)\|_X dt$$

since $\|L\|_{X^*} = 1$.

3. Show that if X is complete and reflexive then $L^2(0, T; X)$ is complete. [Hint: take a sequence $\{f_n\} \in L^2(0, T; X)$, and for each $L \in X^*$ show that $\langle L, f_n(t) \rangle \in L^2(0, T)$ is Cauchy in L^2 . A Cauchy sequence has a subsequence that converges almost everywhere; follow an argument similar to that of question 1, i.e. working in X^{**} , to obtain a candidate limit $f \in L^2(0, T; X)$; finally show that $f_n \rightarrow f$.]

First, observe that $\langle L, f_n(t) \rangle \in L^2(0, T)$, since

$$\int_0^T |\langle L, f_n(t) \rangle|^2 dt \leq \int_0^T \|L\|_{X^*}^2 \|f_n(t)\|_X^2 dt = \|L\|_{X^*}^2 \int_0^T \|f_n(t)\|_X^2 dt.$$

The same argument shows that $\langle L, f_n(t) \rangle$ is a Cauchy sequence in $L^2(0, T)$.

By completeness of $L^2(0, T)$, it follows that there is a function $f_L(\cdot) \in L^2(0, T)$ such that

$$\langle L, f_n \rangle \rightarrow f_L$$

in $L^2(0, T)$. It follows (Corollary 2.15) that there exists a subsequence f_{n_j} such that $\langle L, f_{n_j}(t) \rangle$ converges to $f_L(t)$ for almost every t . At these t define a linear map $I(t) : X^* \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$\langle I(t), L \rangle = f_L(t) = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \langle L, f_{n_j}(t) \rangle.$$

Then $I \in L^2(0, T; X^{**})$, since for almost every t we have

$$|\langle I(t), L \rangle| = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} |\langle L, f_{n_j}(t) \rangle| \leq \|L\|_* \|f_{n_j}(t)\|_X,$$

i.e.

$$\|I(t)\|_{X^{**}} \leq \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \|f_{n_j}(t)\|_X,$$

and so

$$\int_0^T \|I(t)\|_{X^{**}}^2 dt \leq \int_0^T \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \|f_{n_j}(t)\|_X^2 dt \leq M$$

since $\{f_n\}$ is Cauchy in $L^2(0, T; X)$. Since X is reflexive, we can find an $f(t) \in X$ such that $\langle I(t), L \rangle = \langle L, f(t) \rangle$. Since $\|f(t)\|_X = \|I(t)\|_{X^{**}}$, it follows that $f \in L^2(0, T; X)$. Since $\langle I(t), L \rangle = f_L(t)$ by definition, it follows that

$$\langle L, f_n \rangle \rightarrow \langle L, f \rangle$$

in $L^2(0, T)$, i.e. $\langle L, f_n - f \rangle \rightarrow 0$ in $L^2(0, T)$.

I can't finish the proof at the moment...

4. Show that if X is a Hilbert space then $L^2(0, T; X)$ is a Hilbert space.

We have completeness from question 3. The norm on $L^2(0, T; X)$ can be derived from the inner product

$$(f, g) = \int_0^T (f(t), g(t))_X dt,$$

which shows that $L^2(0, T; X)$ is a Hilbert space. (It is easy to check that this is an inner product.)

5. Show that if $f \in C^0([0, T])$ and $\dot{f} \in L^1(0, T)$ is the weak time derivative

of f , then for any $\varphi \in C^1([0, T]) \cap C^\infty(0, T)$

$$\int_0^T \dot{f}(t)\varphi(t) dt = - \int_0^T f(t)\dot{\varphi}(t) dt + f(T)\varphi(T) - f(0)\varphi(0).$$

(This is what lies behind the argument about the initial condition being attained when using weak convergence methods; cf. our Lemma 5.2.)

First note that if f has weak derivative \dot{f} and $g \in C^1([0, T])$ then fg has weak derivative $f\dot{g} + \dot{f}g$, since for any $\varphi \in C_c^\infty(0, T)$

$$\begin{aligned} \int (f\dot{g} + \dot{f}g)\varphi &= \int (f\dot{g})\varphi + \dot{f}(g\varphi) \\ &= \int (f\dot{g})\varphi - f(\dot{g}\varphi) - fg\dot{\varphi} = - \int fg\dot{\varphi}, \end{aligned}$$

where we have used the fact that $g\varphi \in C_c^\infty(0, T)$ (one could remove the requirement that $\varphi \in C^\infty$ by approximation). We can therefore apply the argument of Lemma 5.2 with $X = \mathbb{R}$ (and using L^1 rather than L^2) to fg , since now $fg \in L^1(0, T)$ and the weak derivative of fg is also in $L^1(0, T)$, to deduce that the above equality holds as stated.

6. Suppose that $f \in L^2$ and that $g \in H_0^1$. Show that $f \in H^{-1}$, in the sense that

$$F(g) := (f, g)_{L^2}$$

defines an element $F \in H^{-1}$. (This is what it means to say that $F \in H^{-1}$ is also in L^2 .)

We have

$$|F(g)| = |(f, g)_{L^2}| \leq \|f\|_{L^2} \|g\|_{L^2} \leq \|f\|_{L^2} \|g\|_{H^1},$$

so F is a bounded linear functional on H_0^1 .

7. Given $f \in H^{-1}$, extend f to a linear functional $F \in (H^1)^*$, such that $F(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in H_0^1$ and $\|F\|_{(H^1)^*} = \|f\|_{H^{-1}}$. [Hint: use the Riesz Representation Theorem. This allows one to extend the proof of Lemma 5.3 to the case $f \in L^2(0, T; H^1)$, $\dot{f} \in L^2(0, T; H^{-1})$, which is useful for higher regularity of solutions.]

Given $f \in H^{-1}$, the Riesz Representation Theorem guarantees that there exists a $u \in H_0^1$ such that

$$f(v) = (u, v)_{H^1} \quad \text{for all } v \in H_0^1 \quad \text{and} \quad \|f\|_{H^{-1}} = \|u\|_{H^1}.$$

If we define a linear map $F : H^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$F(v) = (u, v)_{H^1}$$

with the u above the clearly this agrees with f for $v \in H_0^1$; it is linear, and it is bounded on H^1 since

$$|F(v)| \leq \|u\|_{H^1} \|v\|_{H^1}.$$

It follows that $\|F\|_{(H^1)^*} \leq \|f\|_{H^{-1}}$, and since $H_0^1 \subset H^1$, we have equality here.

8. Suppose that $f \in L^2(0, T; H_0^1)$ and that $\dot{f} \in L^2(0, T; H^{-1})$. If $u_0 \in H_0^1 \cap H^2$ show that $u \in C^1([0, T]; H^{-1})$. [Hint: consider the equation for $v = \dot{u}$, and use the Sobolev embedding $H^2(0, T; H^{-1}) \subset C^1([0, T]; H^{-1})$ (we have not explicitly proved such a result).

Lemma 5.3 implies that $f \in C^0([0, T]; L^2)$. Consider the equation for $v = \dot{u}$, which is

$$\dot{v} - \Delta v = \dot{f}(t) \quad v(0) = \Delta u_0 + f(0).$$

This is an equation for v in our standard parabolic form, since our assumptions mean that $\dot{f} \in L^2(0, T; H^{-1})$ and $v(0) \in L^2$. It follows that the equation has a unique solution $v \in L^2(0, T; H^1)$ and $\dot{v} \in L^2(0, T; H^{-1})$, i.e. $v \in H^1(0, T; H^{-1})$. Since the solutions are unique, we must have $v = \dot{u}$, and hence $\dot{u} \in L^2(0, T; H^1) \cap H^1(0, T; H^{-1})$. It follows that u itself is an element of $H^2(0, T; H^{-1})$, and hence of $C^1([0, T]; H^{-1})$.

9. Prove the Hahn-Banach theorem in a Hilbert space. [Show first that f extends to the closure of U if U is not closed; then consider \bar{U} and $(\bar{U})^\perp$.]

If f is a bounded linear functional on U and $x \in \bar{U}$, one can write $x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$, where $x_n \in U$. One can define

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n).$$

The limit exists since f is bounded and linear, and is well-defined. Clearly

$$|f(x)| \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f\|_* \|x_n\| \leq \|f\|_* \|x\|$$

so the norm of f is not increased. So assume that U is closed. In this case one can decompose any $x \in H$ as $x = u + v$, where $v \in U^\perp$. For any $x \in H$ define

$$F(x) = f(u).$$

Then F is an extension of f , and $|F(x)| = |f(u)| \leq \|f\|_* \|u\| \leq \|f\|_* \|x\|$ since $\|u\| \leq \|x\|$.

*10. Suppose that x and y are linearly independent elements of X . Show that there exists a constant c such that

$$|\alpha\|x\| + \beta c| \leq \|\alpha x + \beta y\|$$

for every $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. [If you can prove this you can prove the Hahn–Banach Theorem... more or less.]

*11. It is relatively easy to show that any element $\underline{\phi}$ of the sequence space ℓ^∞ gives rise to a linear functional on ℓ^1 via

$$L_{\underline{\phi}}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \phi_k x_k$$

with $\|L_{\underline{\phi}}\|_{(\ell^1)^*} = \|\underline{\phi}\|_{\ell^\infty}$. Show that any $L \in (\ell^1)^*$ can be written as $L_{\underline{\phi}}$ for some $\underline{\phi} \in \ell^\infty$, and hence that $(\ell^1)^* = \ell^\infty$. [Hint: let $\{e_k\}_{k=1}^\infty$ be the basis for ℓ^1 where e_k consists of all zeros apart from a 1 in the k^{th} position and write $\underline{x} = \sum_{k=1}^\infty x_k e_k$. What is $L\underline{x}$?]

12. Show that weak convergence in X^* implies weak-* convergence; and that if X^* is reflexive then weak-* convergence implies weak convergence.

In general we know that any element of X gives rise to an element of X^{**} via

$$G_x(f) = f(x) \quad \text{for all } f \in X^*.$$

So if $f_n \rightharpoonup f$ in X^* , i.e. $G(f_n) \rightarrow G(f)$ for every $G \in (X^*)^* = X^{**}$, then in particular for any $x \in X$ this holds for $G = G_x$, so that

$$G_x(f_n) = f_n(x) \rightarrow G_x(f) = f(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in X,$$

i.e. $f_n \xrightarrow{*} f$ in X^* .

If X is reflexive then any element $G \in X^{**}$ can be written as G_x for some $x \in X$; so given $G \in X^{**}$ we have

$$G(f_n) = G_x(f_n) = f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x) = G_x(f) = G(f),$$

which is weak convergence in X^* .