

A CONTRACTIVE METHOD FOR THE PROOF OF PICARD'S THEOREM

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Abstract. *In this paper we give another way to establish the unique locally solvability of the Cauchy problem*

$$(1) \quad \begin{cases} y' = f(x, y) \\ y(x_0) = y_0 \end{cases},$$

asking the same conditions as in Picard's theorem, namely continuity and lipschizianity with respect the second argument for f . We prove that the differentiation operator $Dy = y'$ defined between some two Banach spaces is inversable and we write (1) as a fixed point problem:

$$v(x) = f(x, D^{-1}v(x)),$$

with $v = Dy \Leftrightarrow y = D^{-1}v$ which is studied using the contraction principle of Banach. In some cases the corresponding approximation sequence is easier to calculate than the sequence from Picard's theorem.

Let $\Delta = \{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid |x - x_0| \leq a, |y - y_0| \leq b \}$ be a rectangle,
 $f: \Delta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function satisfying Lipschiz condition

$$|f(x, y) - f(x, z)| \leq L |y - z|,$$

for each $(x, y), (x, z) \in \Delta$ and some $L > 0$.

Let us choose $0 < \varepsilon < \min \left\{ a, \frac{b}{M} \right\}$, where $M = \max_{(x, y) \in \Delta} |f(x, y)|$ and denote

$$I = (x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon).$$

For the beginning we assume that $y_0 = 0$ without losing of generality, as we can see later. Let us consider the Cauchy problem

$$(2) \quad \begin{cases} y' = f(x, y) \\ y(x_0) = 0 \end{cases}.$$

The space defined by $W := \{ y \in \overline{C^1}(I) \mid y(x_0) = 0 \}$ is a closed subspace of $\overline{C^1}(I)$, hence W endowed with $\|\cdot\|_{\overline{C^1}(I)}$ is a Banach space. First we give the following:

Lemma. *The operator $D : W \rightarrow C(\overline{I})$, $Dy = y'$ is linear, one-to-one and onto. Its inverse $D^{-1} : C(\overline{I}) \rightarrow W$ is linear, continuous and*

$$(3) \quad \|D^{-1}v\|_{\overline{C^1}(I)} \leq \varepsilon \|v\|_{C(\overline{I})}, \quad \forall v \in C(\overline{I}).$$

Proof. Let $y_1, y_2 \in W$ be such that $Dy_1 = Dy_2 \rightarrow y_1' = y_2' \rightarrow y_1 - y_2$ is constant. But $y_1(x_0) = y_2(x_0) = 0$, that is $y_1 = y_2$.

For every $v \in C(\overline{I})$, there exists $y \in W$, $y(x) := \int_{x_0}^x v(t) dt$ such that

$Dy = v$. Moreover

$$|D^{-1}v(x)| = \left| \int_{x_0}^x v(t) dt \right| \leq |x - x_0| \cdot \sup_{t \in I} |v(t)| \leq \varepsilon \|v\|_{C(\overline{I})}. \quad \square$$

The Cauchy problem (2) can be equivalently written as

$$(4) \quad Dy(x) = f(x, y(x))$$

with $y \in W$. If we put $Dy = v \in C(\bar{I}) \Leftrightarrow y = D^{-1}v$, we have

$$(5) \quad v(x) = f(x, D^{-1}v(x)).$$

Let us consider the operator $S: \bar{B}_M(0) \rightarrow \bar{B}_M(0)$,

$$(6) \quad Sv(x) := f(x, D^{-1}v(x)),$$

where $\bar{B}_M(0) = \{v \in C(\bar{I}) \mid \|v\|_{C(\bar{I})} \leq M\}$. S is well defined because f and D^{-1} are continuous. Moreover, if $\|v\|_{C(\bar{I})} \leq M$, then

$$\|D^{-1}v(x)\| \leq \epsilon \|v\|_{C(\bar{I})} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{M} \cdot M = \epsilon,$$

thus $(x, D^{-1}v(x)) \in \Delta$, $(\forall) x \in I$. Now we can see that (5) is equivalent with the following fixed problem

$$(7) \quad v(x) = Sv(x).$$

We shall prove that S is a contraction. Indeed, for $v_1, v_2 \in \bar{B}_M(0)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|Sv_1(x) - Sv_2(x)\| &= \|f(x, D^{-1}v_1(x)) - f(x, D^{-1}v_2(x))\| \leq \\ &\leq L \cdot \|D^{-1}v_1(x) - D^{-1}v_2(x)\| = L \cdot \|D^{-1}(v_1(x) - v_2(x))\| \leq L\epsilon \|v_1 - v_2\|. \end{aligned}$$

We obtained

$$(8) \quad \|Sv_1 - Sv_2\| \leq c \|v_1 - v_2\|, \quad \forall v_1, v_2 \in \bar{B}_M(0),$$

with $c := L\epsilon < 1$ if we take $\epsilon < \frac{1}{L}$.

From contraction principle of Banach it results that S has an unique fixed point denoted by $v \in \bar{B}_M(0) \subset C(\bar{I})$:

$$(9) \quad v(x) = f(x, D^{-1}v(x));$$

or

$$(10) \quad y'(x) = f(x, y(x)),$$

with $y = D^{-1} v \in W$. Thus $y: (x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the unique solution of the Cauchy problem (2). \square

Now we consider the general case when $y(x_0) = y_0$:

$$(11) \quad \begin{cases} y' = f(x, y) \\ y(x_0) = y_0 \end{cases}.$$

If we denote $z := y - y_0$ then z satisfy the following Cauchy problem

$$(12) \quad \begin{cases} z' = g(x, z) \\ z(x_0) = 0 \end{cases}.$$

where $g(x, z) := f(x, z + y_0)$. Obviously, the problem (12) has an unique solution as we have proved above, because g has the same properties together with f . Also (11) has (locally) an unique solution.

A NUMERICAL EXAMPLE.

Let us consider the Cauchy problem

$$(13) \quad \begin{cases} y' = x^2 + y \\ y(0) = 0 \end{cases}.$$

which is a linear differential equation having the unique solution

$$(14) \quad y(x) = 2e^x - x^2 - 2x - 2, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

In this case $f(x, y) = x^2 + y$ and $|f(x, y) - f(x, z)| = |y - z|$, that is lipschizianity with respect the second argument. The operator S is now defined by

$$(15) \quad Sv(x) = x^2 + \int_0^x v(t) dt.$$

Using the above theoretical results, we obtain that (13) has an unique solution $y = D^{-1}v$, where v is the unique fixed point of S . Moreover, v is the limit of the sequence $(v_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ defined recursively by

$$(16) \quad v_{n+1}(x) = x^2 + \int_0^x v_n(t) dt,$$

where v_0 is arbitrary chosen. If we take $v_0 = 0$, then

$$v_1(x) = x^2, \quad v_2(x) = x^2 + \int_0^x t^2 dt = x^2 + \frac{x^3}{3},$$

$$v_3(x) = x^2 + \int_0^x \left(t^2 + \frac{t^3}{3} \right) dt = x^2 + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^4}{3 \cdot 4}.$$

It is easy to see that

$$(17) \quad v_n(x) = x^2 + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^4}{3 \cdot 4} + \dots + \frac{x^{n+1}}{3 \cdot 4 \cdot \dots \cdot (n+1)}, \quad n \geq 2,$$

or

$$(18) \quad v_n(x) = 2 \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{x^k}{k!} - 2x - 2.$$

For $n \rightarrow \infty$ we obtain

$$(19) \quad v(x) = 2e^x - 2x - 2$$

and the solution of (13) is $y = D^{-1}v$, namely

$$y(x) = \int_0^x v(t) dt = 2e^x - x^2 - 2x - 2. \quad \square$$

Remark. The successive approximation sequence from Picard's theorem is given by

$$(20) \quad y_{n+1}(x) = y_0 + \int_{x_0}^x f(s, y_n(s)) ds, \quad n > 0.$$

In some cases the integral from (20) is more difficult to calculate than the integral from our method:

$$(21) \quad v_{n+1}(x) = f \left(x, \int_{x_0}^x v_n(t) dt \right),$$

because the integral sign in (21) appears only in the second argument of f .

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