

To Section 1.1

Lemma 1 (Lemma 1.4) Letting $\|\underline{x}\|^2 = \underline{x}^T \underline{x}$, the vector $\underline{x}^* = A^+ \underline{b}$ satisfies

$$(1^\circ) \forall \underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|A\underline{x}^* - \underline{b}\| \leq \|A\underline{x} - \underline{b}\|,$$

$$(2^\circ) \|A\underline{x}^* - \underline{b}\| = \|A\underline{x} - \underline{b}\| \implies \|\underline{x}^*\| \leq \|\underline{x}\|.$$

Proof. Every unitary matrix Q satisfies $\|Qx\| = \|x\|$ where $\|\cdot\| := \|\cdot\|_2$. Therefore

$$\|Ax - b\| = \|USV^H x - b\| = \|SV^H x - U^H b\| = \|Sy - c\|$$

where $V^H x = y$ and $U^H b = c$. Let r be the rank of A , then $\arg \min_y \|Sy - c\|$ is given by

$$y_j = \begin{cases} c_j/\sigma_j & j = 1, \dots, r, \\ \text{arbitrary} & j > r. \end{cases}$$

Let $u_j = Ue_j$ and $v_j = Ve_j$ be the j -th column resp. row U resp. V . Because $x = Vy$ and $c = U^H b$, i.e. $c_j = e_j^T U^H b$ we then obtain

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \sum_{j=1}^r V e_j e_j^T U^H b / \sigma_j + \sum_{j=r+1}^n v_j y_j = VS^+ U^H b + \sum_{j=r+1}^n v_j y_j \\ &= A^+ b + \sum_{j=r+1}^n v_j y_j. \end{aligned}$$

Since the vectors v_j are orthogonal, $x = A^+ b$ is the solution with minimum norm.

To Section 1.2

Proof of formulas (1.17) and (1.18)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_V (\text{grad } \varphi)^T dV &= \oint_{\partial V} \varphi d\underline{O} = \oint_{\partial V} \varphi \underline{n} dO \in \mathbb{R}^3, \\ \int_V \text{rot } \underline{v} dV &= \oint_{\partial V} d\underline{O} \times \underline{v} = - \oint_{\partial V} \underline{v} \times \underline{n} dO \in \mathbb{R}^3. \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\int_F d\underline{O} \times (\text{grad } \varphi)^T = \oint_{\partial F} \varphi d\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3.$$

Proof. Let $\underline{a}^T \underline{x} = 0$ for all $\underline{a} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ then $\underline{x} = \underline{0}$.

(1°) Let $\underline{a} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ arbitrary constant then $\text{div } \underline{a} = 0$ and $\text{div}(\varphi \underline{a}) = \text{grad}(\varphi) \cdot \underline{a}$. The theorem of GAUSS yields for $\underline{v} = \varphi \underline{a}$

$$\int_{\partial V} (\varphi \underline{a}) \cdot \underline{n} dO = \int_V \text{div}(\varphi \underline{a}) dV = \int_V \text{grad } \varphi \cdot \underline{a} dV = \left[\int_V \text{grad } \varphi dV \right] \cdot \underline{a},$$

hence

$$\underline{a} \cdot \int_{\partial V} \varphi \underline{n} dO = \underline{a} \cdot \int_V (\text{grad } \varphi)^T dV.$$

Now the assertion follows because \underline{a} is arbitrary.

(2°) Recall that

$$\text{div}(\underline{v} \times \underline{w}) = \underline{w} \cdot \text{rot } \underline{v} - \underline{v} \cdot \text{rot } \underline{w}.$$

and $\text{rot } \underline{a} = 0$ for constant $\underline{w} = \underline{a}$ therefore $\text{div}(\underline{v} \times \underline{a}) = \underline{a} \cdot \text{rot } \underline{v}$. With the same argumentation as in (1°) we now obtain the result by the theorem of GAUSS for $\underline{w} = \underline{v} \times \underline{a}$:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_V \text{div } \underline{w} dV &= \int_V \text{div}(\underline{v} \times \underline{a}) dV = \int_V \underline{a} \cdot \text{rot } \underline{v} dV = \int_{\partial V} \underline{w} \cdot \underline{n} dO \\ &= \int_{\partial V} (\underline{v} \times \underline{a}) \cdot \underline{n} dO = -\underline{a} \cdot \int_{\partial V} (\underline{v} \times \underline{n}) dO. \end{aligned}$$

(3°) Recall

$$\text{rot}(\varphi \underline{v}) = (\text{grad } \varphi)^T \times \underline{v} + \varphi \text{rot } \underline{v}$$

and $\text{rot } \underline{v} = 0$ for constant $\underline{v} = \underline{a}$ hence $\text{rot}(\varphi \underline{a}) = (\text{grad } \varphi)^T \times \underline{a}$. The theorem of STOKES then yields for $\underline{w} = \varphi \underline{a}$

$$\int_F \text{rot}(\varphi \underline{a}) \cdot \underline{n} dO = \int_F ((\text{grad } \varphi)^T \times \underline{a}) \cdot \underline{n} dO = \underline{a} \cdot \int_F (\underline{n} \times (\text{grad } \varphi)^T) dO = \int_{\partial F} \varphi \underline{a} \cdot \underline{dx} = \underline{a} \cdot \int \varphi \underline{dx}.$$

Theorem 1 (*Theorem 1.4, Potential Criterium*) Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be a simply connected domain and $\underline{v} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ a continuously differentiable vector field. Then there exists a potential $\varphi : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $\underline{v} = \text{grad } \varphi$ if and only if $\text{grad } \underline{v}(\underline{x})$ is symmetric,

$$\forall \underline{x} \in \Omega : \text{grad } \underline{v}(\underline{x}) = [\text{grad } \underline{v}(\underline{x})]^T;$$

this condition is equivalent to $\text{rot } \underline{v}(\underline{x}) = 0$ for $n = 2, 3$.

Proof. The right side is necessary by the theorem of H.A.SCHWARZ. We choose $\underline{a} \in G$ fixed, $\underline{x} \in G$ near \underline{a} and for C the straight line from \underline{a} to \underline{x} :

$$\underline{w}(t; \underline{x}) = \underline{a} + t(\underline{x} - \underline{a}), \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1.$$

Then by the chain rule (E identity matrix)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{grad}_x \underline{v}(\underline{w}(t; \underline{x})) &= [\text{grad } \underline{v}](\underline{w}(t; \underline{x})) \text{grad}_x \underline{w}(t; \underline{x}) \\ &= [\text{grad } \underline{v}](\underline{w}(t; \underline{x})) tE = t[\text{grad } \underline{v}](\underline{w}(t; \underline{x})) \end{aligned}$$

As possible antiderivative we define

$$f(\underline{x}) := \int_0^1 \underline{v}(\underline{w}(t; \underline{x}))^T \dot{\underline{w}}(t; \underline{x}) dt = \int_0^1 \underline{v}(\underline{a} + t(\underline{x} - \underline{a}))^T (\underline{x} - \underline{a}) dt$$

Then, by $\text{grad}(\underline{v}^T \underline{u}) = \underline{v}^T \text{grad } \underline{u} + \underline{u}^T \text{grad } \underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}_n$ we obtain for $\underline{u}(\underline{x}) = \underline{x}$ that

$$\text{grad } f(\underline{x}) = \int_0^1 \text{grad}_x [\underline{v}(\underline{w}(t; \underline{x}))^T (\underline{x} - \underline{a})] dt = \int_0^1 [\underline{v}^T E + (\underline{x} - \underline{a})^T \nabla_x \underline{v}(\underline{w}(t; \underline{x})) t] dt$$

If the right side is true then $(\underline{x} - \underline{a})^T \nabla_x \underline{v} = (\underline{x} - \underline{a})^T [\nabla_x \underline{v}]^T$ and thus

$$\begin{aligned} \text{grad } f(\underline{x}) &= \int_0^1 \frac{d}{dt} [t \underline{v}(\underline{w}(t; \underline{x}))^T] dt = t \underline{v}(\underline{w}(t; \underline{x}))^T \Big|_0^1 \\ &= 1 \cdot \underline{v}(\underline{w}(1; \underline{x}))^T - 0 \cdot \underline{v}(\underline{w}(0; \underline{x}))^T = \underline{v}(\underline{w}(1; \underline{x}))^T = \underline{v}(\underline{x})^T \in \mathbb{R}_n. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2 (Theorem 1.5) Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ be a star-shaped domain and $\underline{v} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ continuously differentiable. Then the vector field \underline{v} has a vector potential \underline{w} with $\underline{v} = \text{rot } \underline{w}$ if and only if $\text{div } \underline{v} = 0$ in Ω .

Proof. If $\underline{v} = \text{rot } \underline{w}$ then $\text{div } \text{rot } \underline{w} = \text{div } \underline{v} = 0$. Conversely, let without loss of generality

$$\underline{w}(x) = \int_0^1 t(\underline{v}(z + t(x - z)) \times (x - z)) dt$$

and also without loss of generality $z = 0$. Because

$$\text{rot}(\underline{v} \times \underline{u}) = (\text{div } \underline{u})\underline{v} - (\text{div } \underline{v})\underline{u} + (\text{grad } \underline{v})\underline{u} - (\text{grad } \underline{u})\underline{v}$$

and $\text{div } \underline{v} = 0$, we obtain for $\underline{u}(x) = x$ and $\text{div } x = 3$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{rot}_x \int_0^1 t(\underline{v}(tx) \times x) dt &= \int_0^1 t \text{rot}_x (\underline{v}(tx) \times x) dt \\ &= \int_0^1 t [\underline{v}(tx) \text{div } x + t \text{grad } \underline{v}(tx) - E \underline{v}(tx)] dt \quad (E \text{ identity matrix}) \\ &= \int_0^1 [2t\underline{v}(tx) + t^2 \frac{d}{dt} \underline{v}(tx)] dt = \int_0^1 \frac{d}{dt} (t^2 \underline{v}(tx)) dt = [t^2 \underline{v}(tx)]_0^1 = \underline{v}(x). \end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem 3 (Theorem 1.6) Let Ω be “regular” and let $\underline{v} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be a divergence-free vector field then \underline{v} has a divergence-free vector potential.

Proof. Let there be given a vector potential \underline{w}_0 of \underline{v} by Theorem 1.5 then we write $\underline{w} = \underline{w}_0 + \text{grad } \varphi$ and require that $0 = \text{div } \underline{w} = \text{div } \underline{w}_0 + \Delta \varphi$, i.e.

$$\Delta \varphi = -\text{div } \underline{w}_0$$

in Ω . This differential equation has at least one solution φ . Then \underline{w} is divergence-free and $\underline{v} = \text{rot } \underline{w}$. □

Theorem 4 (HELMHOLTZ’ Decomposition Theorem) Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ be “regular” and let $\underline{v} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ be continuously differentiable then there exists a scalar field φ and a vector field \underline{w} such that

$$\underline{v} = \text{grad } \varphi + \text{rot } \underline{w}.$$

Proof. If there exists a partition of the announced form then applying divergence yields

$$\text{div } \underline{v} = \Delta \varphi,$$

and thus a differential equation for φ . Suppose that φ is a solution of this equation then

$$\text{div}(\underline{v} - \text{grad } \varphi) = 0.$$

By Theorem 1.6 there exists a vector potential \underline{w} such that

$$\underline{v} - \text{grad } \varphi = \text{rot } \underline{w}.$$

To Section 1.3
Deriving of formula (1.24) for the torsion

$$\tau(t) = \frac{\det(\underline{\dot{x}}, \underline{\ddot{x}}, \underline{\ddot{\ddot{x}}})(t)}{|\underline{\dot{x}}(t) \times \underline{\ddot{x}}(t)|^2}.$$

Proof. Since $\underline{\dot{t}}$ parallel to \underline{n} we have $\underline{\dot{t}} \times \underline{n} = 0$. Then it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} |\underline{b}|^2 = \underline{b}^T \underline{b} = 1 &\implies \underline{\dot{b}}^T \underline{b} + \underline{b}^T \underline{\dot{b}} = 0 \implies \underline{\dot{b}} \perp \underline{b}, \\ \underline{\dot{b}} = \underline{\dot{t}} \times \underline{n} + \underline{t} \times \underline{\dot{n}} = \underline{t} \times \underline{\dot{n}} &\implies \underline{\dot{b}} \perp \underline{t}, \end{aligned}$$

therefore $\underline{\dot{b}}$ must be parallel to \underline{n} . Write

$$\frac{\underline{\dot{b}}}{\dot{s}} = -\tau \underline{n} \quad \left(\text{manchmal auch} \right) \quad \frac{\underline{\dot{b}}}{\dot{s}} = \tau \underline{n}. \quad (1)$$

From $\underline{b}^T \underline{n} = 0$, $\underline{\dot{b}}^T \underline{n} + \underline{b}^T \underline{\dot{n}} = 0$, and (1) we obtain

$$\tau \equiv \tau \underline{n} \cdot \underline{n} = -\frac{\underline{\dot{b}} \cdot \underline{n}}{\dot{s}} = \frac{\underline{\dot{n}} \cdot \underline{b}}{\dot{s}} = \frac{\underline{\dot{n}} \cdot (\underline{\dot{x}} \times \underline{\ddot{x}})}{\dot{s} |\underline{\dot{x}} \times \underline{\ddot{x}}|}. \quad (2)$$

But $\underline{\ddot{x}} = \ddot{s} \underline{t} + \dot{s}^2 \kappa \underline{n}$ hence

$$\underline{\ddot{\ddot{x}}} = \ddot{\ddot{s}} \underline{t} + \dot{\ddot{s}} \underline{\dot{t}} + 2\dot{s}\ddot{s}\kappa \underline{n} + \dot{s}^2 \dot{\kappa} \underline{n} + \dot{s}^2 \kappa \underline{\dot{n}}.$$

Resolution of this equation w.r.t. $\underline{\dot{n}}$ and inserting in (2) yields

$$\tau = \frac{(\underline{\dot{x}} \times \underline{\ddot{x}})^T [\underline{\ddot{\ddot{x}}} - \ddot{\ddot{s}} \underline{t} - \dot{\ddot{s}} \underline{\dot{t}} - 2\dot{s}\ddot{s}\kappa \underline{n} - \dot{s}^2 \kappa \underline{\dot{n}}]}{\dot{s}^2 \kappa \dot{s} |\underline{\dot{x}} \times \underline{\ddot{x}}|}. \quad (3)$$

Note that \underline{b} is parallel to $\underline{\dot{x}} \times \underline{\ddot{x}}$, $\underline{b} \perp \underline{t}$, $\underline{b} \perp \underline{n}$, hence also $\underline{b} \perp \underline{\dot{t}}$. Therefore

$$(\underline{\dot{x}} \times \underline{\ddot{x}})^T [\ddot{\ddot{s}} \underline{t} + \dot{\ddot{s}} \underline{\dot{t}} + 2\dot{s}\ddot{s}\kappa \underline{n} + \dot{s}^2 \kappa \underline{\dot{n}}] = 0.$$

Now, inserting $\kappa = |\underline{\dot{x}} \times \underline{\ddot{x}}|/\dot{s}^3$ in the denominator, the result for τ is obtained.

To Section 1.6

Theorem 5 (*Straightening Theorem*) Let $\underline{v} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ be a conservative vector field, let $\underline{x}_0 \in \Omega$, $\underline{v}(\underline{x}_0) \neq \underline{0}$, and let $\underline{e}_1 = [1, 0, \dots, 0]^T \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then there exists an open set \mathcal{U} with $\underline{x}_0 \in \mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and a diffeomorphism $F : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{U}$ such that

$$\forall \underline{x} \in \mathcal{U} : \underline{e}_1 = \nabla F(\underline{x}) \underline{v}(\underline{x}). \quad (4)$$

Proof. For $n = 3$. Let $\underline{x}_0 = [x_0^1, x_0^2, x_0^3]^T$ and $\underline{v}(\underline{x}) = (v^1(\underline{x}), v^2(\underline{x}), v^3(\underline{x}))^T$. Without loss of generality, let $v^1(x_0) \neq 0$. Further, let $x_0^1 = 0$, else consider the rotated vector field $A^T \underline{v}(A\underline{x})$ with a suitable rotation matrix A . Besides, let

$\underline{X} = [X^1, X^2, X^3]^T \in \mathbb{R}^3$ arbitrary, $\underline{X}^* = [0, X^2, X^3]^T$, and let $\Phi(t, \underline{X})$ be the flux of the vector field \underline{v} . We insert $t = X^1 - x_0^1$ and $\underline{X} = \underline{X}^*$ and consider the mapping

$$G : \underline{X} \mapsto \Phi(X^1 - x_0^1, \underline{X}^*) = G(\underline{X}) =: \underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3,$$

then

$$G(\underline{x}_0) = \Phi(0, [0, x_0^2, x_0^3]^T) = [0, x_0^2, x_0^3]^T = \underline{x}_0$$

because $x_0^1 = 0$ and

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial X^1} G(\underline{X}) = \underline{v}(G(\underline{X})) \quad \text{für } X^1 = x_0^1.$$

Then, for $X^1 = x_0^1$ because $\Phi(0, \underline{X}^*) = [0, X^2, X^3]^T$,

$$\nabla G(\underline{X}) = \begin{bmatrix} v^1(G(\underline{X})) & 0 & 0 \\ v^2(G(\underline{X})) & 1 & 0 \\ v^3(G(\underline{X})) & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

where $G(\underline{x}_0) = \underline{x}_0$, and the matrix $\nabla G(\underline{x}_0)$ is regular since $v^1(\underline{x}_0) \neq 0$ by assumption. Since \underline{v} is continuously differentiable, there exists an open neighborhood \mathcal{U}_0 where $\underline{x}_0 \in \mathcal{U}_0 \subset \Omega$ such that $\nabla G(\underline{X})$ is regular for all $\underline{X} \in \mathcal{U}_0$. By the inverse mapping theorem there exists an open neighborhood \mathcal{U} where $\underline{x}_0 \in \mathcal{U} \subset \mathcal{U}_0$ such that G is a diffeomorphism in \mathcal{U} . By (5) we have

$$\nabla G(\underline{X}) \underline{e}_1 = \underline{v}(G(\underline{X})).$$

Choose $F = G^{-1}$ then $\nabla F(\underline{x}) = (\nabla G(\underline{X}(\underline{x})))^{-1}$ and

$$\forall \underline{x} \in G(\mathcal{U}) : \nabla F(\underline{x}) \underline{v}(\underline{x}) = \underline{e}_1. \quad (6)$$

Inserting now $\underline{x} = G(\underline{X})$ in $\dot{\underline{x}} = \underline{v}(\underline{x})$ we obtain ($\dot{\cdot} = d/dt$)

$$\forall \underline{X} \in \mathcal{U} : \nabla G(\underline{X}) \dot{\underline{X}} = \underline{v}(G(\underline{X})) = \nabla G(\underline{X}) \underline{e}_1.$$

hence

$$\boxed{\forall \underline{X} \in \mathcal{U} : \dot{\underline{X}} = \underline{e}_1}.$$

□

Example 1.10 and 1.11

(a) Find the flux integral of the differential equation $y' = e^y \sin x$. For which $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ does the solution of the initial value problem

$$y' = e^y \sin x, \quad y(0) = y_0$$

“globally” exist, i.e. on the entire line \mathbb{R} ?

(b) Find the flux integral of the differential equation

$$y' = (x - y + 3)^2$$

and sketch the general solution (by means of isoklines).

Hint: Use the substitution $z = x - y + 3$ and consider the subdomains $|z| < 1$, $|z| = 1$, $|z| > 1$.

Solution: (a) Separation of variables yields

$$\int_{y_0}^y e^{-y} dy = \int_{x_0}^x \sin x dx,$$

hence

$$e^{-y} - e^{-y_0} = \cos x - \cos x_0 \implies \Phi(x; x_0, y_0) = -\ln(\cos x + \exp(-y_0) - \cos x_0).$$

Since the argument of the logarithmus must be positiv there exists a global solution for

$$e^{-y_0} - \cos x_0 > 1 \iff e^{-y_0} > \cos x_0 + 1.$$

Because of the monotony of the logarithmus then

$$-y_0 > \ln(\cos x_0 + 1) \iff y_0 < -\ln(\cos x_0 + 1) \implies y(0) < -\ln 2.$$

(b) For $x - y + 3 = z$ and $z = \pm 1$ we obtain the solutions

$$y = x + 2, \quad y = x + 4,$$

resp. $\Phi(x, x_0, y_0) = y_0 + x - 2 - (x_0 - 2)$ etc..

Solutions cannot intersect because y' is given explicitly. They must therefore remain for $|z| \neq 1$ entirely in one of the following domains:

$$G_1 = \{(x, y), |x - y + 3| < 1\}, \quad G_2 = \{(x, y), x - y + 3 < -1\}, \quad G_3 = \{(x, y), x - y + 3 > 1\}.$$

For z we obtain the differential equation

$$z' = 1 - y' = 1 - (x - y + 3)^2 = 1 - z^2.$$

Separation of variables yields

$$\frac{z'}{1 - z^2} = 1$$

By partial decomposition

$$\frac{z'}{1 - z} + \frac{z'}{1 + z} = 2.$$

Integration yields

$$-\ln|z - 1| + \ln|z + 1| = 2x + c_1 \implies \frac{|z + 1|}{|z - 1|} = ce^{2x}$$

Fallunterscheidung:

$$\begin{aligned} z > 1: & \quad \frac{z + 1}{z - 1} = ce^{2x} \implies z = \frac{ce^{2x} + 1}{ce^{2x} - 1} \\ |z| < 1: & \quad \frac{z + 1}{-(z - 1)} = ce^{2x} \implies z = \frac{ce^{2x} + 1}{ce^{2x} + 1}, \\ z < -1: & \quad \frac{-(z + 1)}{-(z - 1)} = ce^{2x} \implies z = \frac{ce^{2x} + 1}{ce^{2x} - 1} \end{aligned}$$

Result:

$$\boxed{y = x + 3 - \frac{ce^{2x} + 1}{ce^{2x} - 1}, \quad (x, y) \in G_2 \cup G_3, \quad y = x + 3 - \frac{ce^{2x} - 1}{ce^{2x} + 1}, \quad (x, y) \in G_1.}$$

For the calculation of the flux integral, we insert $x = x_0$ and $y = y_0$ and solve w.r.t. the constant c , then the result for c is inserted. For the general initial value problem

$$y' = (x - y + 3)^2, \quad y(x_0) = y_0,$$

we obtain in $G_1 \cup G_2 \cup G_3$

$$\begin{aligned} y &= x + 3 - \frac{(x_0 - y_0 + 4)e^{2x} + (x_0 - y_0 + 2)e^{2x_0}}{(x_0 - y_0 + 4)e^{2x} - (x_0 - y_0 + 2)e^{2x_0}}, & (x_0, y_0) \in G_2 \cup G_3, \\ y &= x + 3 - \frac{(x_0 - y_0 + 4)e^{2x} - (x_0 - y_0 + 2)e^{2x_0}}{(x_0 - y_0 + 4)e^{2x} + (x_0 - y_0 + 2)e^{2x_0}}, & (x_0, y_0) \in G_1. \end{aligned}$$

To Section 1.7

Lemma 2 (*Lemma 1.12*)

(1°) $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{X}$ is a hyperplane if and only if

$$\exists 0 \neq f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ linear } \exists c \in \mathbb{R} : \mathcal{H} = \{x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x) = c\}.$$

(2°) If $0 \notin \mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{X}$ is a hyperplane then there exists uniquely a linear functional $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $\mathcal{H} = \{x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x) = 1\}$.

(3°) If $0 \neq f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is linear and $\mathcal{H} = \{x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x) = c\}$ is a hyperplane then $\mathcal{H} = \overline{\mathcal{H}}$ closed if and only if the mapping f is continuous.

Proof. Proof. Cf. [Luenberger69], p. 129.

(a) A hyperplane \mathcal{H} is an affin subspace hence $\mathcal{H} = v + \mathcal{U}$ where \mathcal{U} is a linear subspace and $v \in \mathcal{H}$.

Case 1. $v \notin \mathcal{U}$ then $2v \notin \mathcal{H}$ otherwise

$$\mathcal{H} \ni x = 2v \implies x - v = v \in \mathcal{U}.$$

Hence $\mathcal{X} = \text{span}\{v, \mathcal{H}\} = \text{span}\{v, \mathcal{U}\}$ because \mathcal{H} is maximum. Let $\mathcal{X} \ni x = \alpha v + u$, $u \in \mathcal{U}$, and $f(x) := \alpha$. Then f is linear and

$$\mathcal{H} = \{x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x) = 1\}.$$

Case 2. $v \in \mathcal{U}$, then choose $w \notin \mathcal{U} \neq \mathcal{X}$. Then $\mathcal{X} = \text{span}\{w, \mathcal{U}\}$, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{U}$. Let $\mathcal{X} \ni x = \alpha w + u$, $u \in \mathcal{U}$ and $f(x) = \alpha$. Then f is linear and

$$\mathcal{H} = \{x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x) = 0\}.$$

(b) Let $0 \neq f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be linear and $\mathcal{U} = \{x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x) = 0\}$. Then \mathcal{U} is a subspace. Let $v \in \mathcal{X}$ with $f(v) = 1$ which exists because we obtain $f = 0$ from $f(x) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$. Then $v \notin \mathcal{U}$ and it follows that

$$\forall x \in \mathcal{X} : f(x - f(x)v) = f(x) - f(x)f(v) = f(x) - f(x) = 0.$$

By this way it follows that $x - f(x)v \in \mathcal{U}$ hence $\mathcal{X} = \text{span}\{v, \mathcal{U}\}$. Because $v \notin \mathcal{U}$ we find that $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{U} \neq \mathcal{X}$ hence \mathcal{U} must be a hyperplane.

For arbitrary $c \in \mathbb{R}$ let $w \in \mathcal{X}$ with $f(w) = c$. Then $w \notin \mathcal{U}$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \{x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x) = c\} &= \{x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x - w) = 0\} \\ &= \{x \in \mathcal{X}, x - w \in \mathcal{U}\} = w + \mathcal{U} \end{aligned}$$

is a hyperplane.

(2°) The existence follows from (1°). Let $f, g : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be linear with

$$\mathcal{H} = \{x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x) = 1\} = \{x \in X, g(x) = 1\}$$

then $\mathcal{H} \subset \mathcal{W} := \{x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x) - g(x) = 0\}$. Choose $x \in \mathcal{H}$ then $-x \notin \mathcal{H}$ because else $0 \in \mathcal{H}$. But $-x \in \mathcal{W}$ hence

$$\mathcal{W} = \text{span}\{x, \mathcal{H}\} = \mathcal{X}.$$

By this way we obtain $f(x) = g(x)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ hence $f = g$.

(3°) Cf. [Luenberger 69], p. 130. \square

If \mathcal{H} is a hyperplane then either \mathcal{H} is closed, i.e., $\mathcal{H} = \overline{\mathcal{H}}$ or \mathcal{H} is dense in \mathcal{X} , i.e. $\overline{\mathcal{H}} = \mathcal{X}$; cf. [Taylor] p. 139. For example, $\mathcal{C}[0, 1]$ is dense in $\mathcal{L}^2[0, 1]$ hence a hyperplane; cf. [Pflaumann-Unger], p. 187.
