

Numerical Solution of Partial Differential Equations

Endre Süli

Mathematical Institute
University of Oxford
2021

Lecture 1

Elements of function spaces

The accuracy of a numerical method for the approximate solution of PDEs depends on its ability to capture the important features of the analytical solution. One such feature is the smoothness of the solution, which depends on the smoothness of the data.

Elements of function spaces

The accuracy of a numerical method for the approximate solution of PDEs depends on its ability to capture the important features of the analytical solution. One such feature is the smoothness of the solution, which depends on the smoothness of the data.

Precise assumptions about the data and of the corresponding solution can be conveniently stated in terms of function spaces.

Elements of function spaces

The accuracy of a numerical method for the approximate solution of PDEs depends on its ability to capture the important features of the analytical solution. One such feature is the smoothness of the solution, which depends on the smoothness of the data.

Precise assumptions about the data and of the corresponding solution can be conveniently stated in terms of function spaces.

We present a brief overview of definitions and basic results from the theory of function spaces, focusing in particular on spaces of:

Elements of function spaces

The accuracy of a numerical method for the approximate solution of PDEs depends on its ability to capture the important features of the analytical solution. One such feature is the smoothness of the solution, which depends on the smoothness of the data.

Precise assumptions about the data and of the corresponding solution can be conveniently stated in terms of function spaces.

We present a brief overview of definitions and basic results from the theory of function spaces, focusing in particular on spaces of:

- Continuous functions;
- Integrable functions; and
- Sobolev spaces.

Spaces of continuous functions

\mathbb{N} denotes the set of nonnegative integers.

An n -tuple $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{N}^n$ is called a *multi-index*.

The nonnegative integer $|\alpha| := \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n$ is called the length of the multi-index $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$. We denote $(0, \dots, 0)$ by $\mathbf{0}$; clearly $|\mathbf{0}| = 0$.

Spaces of continuous functions

\mathbb{N} denotes the set of nonnegative integers.

An n -tuple $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{N}^n$ is called a *multi-index*.

The nonnegative integer $|\alpha| := \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n$ is called the length of the multi-index $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$. We denote $(0, \dots, 0)$ by $\mathbf{0}$; clearly $|\mathbf{0}| = 0$.

Let

$$D^\alpha := \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \right)^{\alpha_1} \cdots \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} \right)^{\alpha_n} = \frac{\partial^{|\alpha|}}{\partial x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots \partial x_n^{\alpha_n}}.$$

Spaces of continuous functions

\mathbb{N} denotes the set of nonnegative integers.

An n -tuple $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{N}^n$ is called a *multi-index*.

The nonnegative integer $|\alpha| := \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n$ is called the length of the multi-index $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$. We denote $(0, \dots, 0)$ by $\mathbf{0}$; clearly $|\mathbf{0}| = 0$.

Let

$$D^\alpha := \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \right)^{\alpha_1} \cdots \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} \right)^{\alpha_n} = \frac{\partial^{|\alpha|}}{\partial x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots \partial x_n^{\alpha_n}}.$$

EXAMPLE. Suppose that $n = 3$ and $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3)$, $\alpha_j \in \mathbb{N}$, $j = 1, 2, 3$. Then, for u , a function of three variables x_1, x_2, x_3 :

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{|\alpha|=3} D^\alpha u &= \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x_1^3} + \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x_1^2 \partial x_2} + \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x_1^2 \partial x_3} + \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2^2} + \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2 \partial x_3} \\ &\quad + \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x_2^3} + \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2 \partial x_3} + \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x_2^2 \partial x_3} + \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x_2 \partial x_3^2} + \frac{\partial^3 u}{\partial x_3^3}. \end{aligned}$$

We shall frequently write ∂_{x_j} instead of $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}$. ◇

Let Ω be an open set in \mathbb{R}^n , and let $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Let Ω be an open set in \mathbb{R}^n , and let $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

We denote by $C^k(\Omega)$ the set of all continuous real-valued functions defined on Ω s.t. $D^\alpha u$ is continuous on Ω for all $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ with $|\alpha| \leq k$.

Let Ω be an open set in \mathbb{R}^n , and let $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

We denote by $C^k(\Omega)$ the set of all continuous real-valued functions defined on Ω s.t. $D^\alpha u$ is continuous on Ω for all $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ with $|\alpha| \leq k$.

Assuming that Ω is a *bounded* open set, $C^k(\overline{\Omega})$ will denote the set of all u in $C^k(\Omega)$ s.t. $D^\alpha u$ can be extended from Ω to a continuous function on $\overline{\Omega}$, the closure of the set Ω , for all $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ with $|\alpha| \leq k$.

Let Ω be an open set in \mathbb{R}^n , and let $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

We denote by $C^k(\Omega)$ the set of all continuous real-valued functions defined on Ω s.t. $D^\alpha u$ is continuous on Ω for all $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ with $|\alpha| \leq k$.

Assuming that Ω is a *bounded* open set, $C^k(\overline{\Omega})$ will denote the set of all u in $C^k(\Omega)$ s.t. $D^\alpha u$ can be extended from Ω to a continuous function on $\overline{\Omega}$, the closure of the set Ω , for all $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ with $|\alpha| \leq k$.

The linear space $C^k(\overline{\Omega})$ can then be equipped with the norm

$$\|u\|_{C^k(\overline{\Omega})} := \sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} \sup_{x \in \Omega} |D^\alpha u(x)|.$$

Let Ω be an open set in \mathbb{R}^n , and let $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

We denote by $C^k(\Omega)$ the set of all continuous real-valued functions defined on Ω s.t. $D^\alpha u$ is continuous on Ω for all $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ with $|\alpha| \leq k$.

Assuming that Ω is a *bounded* open set, $C^k(\overline{\Omega})$ will denote the set of all u in $C^k(\Omega)$ s.t. $D^\alpha u$ can be extended from Ω to a continuous function on $\overline{\Omega}$, the closure of the set Ω , for all $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ with $|\alpha| \leq k$.

The linear space $C^k(\overline{\Omega})$ can then be equipped with the norm

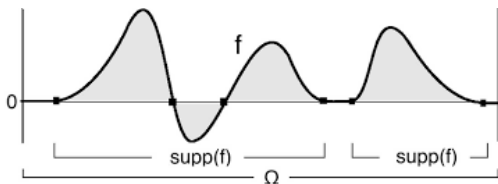
$$\|u\|_{C^k(\overline{\Omega})} := \sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} \sup_{x \in \Omega} |D^\alpha u(x)|.$$

Note: When $k = 0$, we shall write $C(\overline{\Omega})$ instead of $C^0(\overline{\Omega})$.

The *support*, $\text{supp } f$, of a continuous function f on Ω is defined as the closure in Ω of the set

$$\{x \in \Omega : f(x) \neq 0\}.$$

In other words, $\text{supp } f$ is the smallest closed subset of Ω such that $f = 0$ in $\Omega \setminus \text{supp } f$.



EXAMPLE. Let f be the function defined on \mathbb{R}^n by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{1}{1-|x|^2}} & , |x| < 1, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise;} \end{cases}$$

here $|x| := (x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2)^{1/2}$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Clearly, $\text{supp } f$ is the closed unit ball $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : |x| \leq 1\}$. ◇

We denote by $C_0^k(\Omega)$ the set of all $u \in C^k(\Omega)$ such that $\text{supp } u \subset \Omega$ and $\text{supp } u$ is bounded. Let

$$C_0^\infty(\Omega) = \bigcap_{k \geq 0} C_0^k(\Omega).$$

EXAMPLE.

The function f defined in the previous example belongs to $C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$. \diamond

Spaces of integrable functions

Let p be a real number, $p \geq 1$; we denote by $L_p(\Omega)$ the set of all real-valued functions defined on Ω such that

$$\int_{\Omega} |u(x)|^p dx < \infty.$$

Spaces of integrable functions

Let p be a real number, $p \geq 1$; we denote by $L_p(\Omega)$ the set of all real-valued functions defined on Ω such that

$$\int_{\Omega} |u(x)|^p dx < \infty.$$

Functions which are equal almost everywhere (i.e., equal, except on a set of measure zero) on Ω are identified with each other.

A subset of \mathbb{R}^n is said to be a *set of measure zero* if it can be contained in the union of countably many open balls of arbitrarily small total volume.

Spaces of integrable functions

Let p be a real number, $p \geq 1$; we denote by $L_p(\Omega)$ the set of all real-valued functions defined on Ω such that

$$\int_{\Omega} |u(x)|^p \, dx < \infty.$$

Functions which are equal almost everywhere (i.e., equal, except on a set of measure zero) on Ω are identified with each other.

A subset of \mathbb{R}^n is said to be a *set of measure zero* if it can be contained in the union of countably many open balls of arbitrarily small total volume.

$L_p(\Omega)$ is equipped with the norm

$$\|u\|_{L_p(\Omega)} := \left(\int_{\Omega} |u(x)|^p \, dx \right)^{1/p}.$$

A particularly important case is $p = 2$; then,

$$\|u\|_{L_2(\Omega)} = \left(\int_{\Omega} |u(x)|^2 dx \right)^{1/2}.$$

The space $L_2(\Omega)$ can be equipped with an inner product

$$(u, v) := \int_{\Omega} u(x)v(x) dx.$$

Clearly $\|u\|_{L_2(\Omega)} = (u, u)^{1/2}$.

A particularly important case is $p = 2$; then,

$$\|u\|_{L_2(\Omega)} = \left(\int_{\Omega} |u(x)|^2 dx \right)^{1/2}.$$

The space $L_2(\Omega)$ can be equipped with an inner product

$$(u, v) := \int_{\Omega} u(x)v(x) dx.$$

Clearly $\|u\|_{L_2(\Omega)} = (u, u)^{1/2}$.

Lemma (The Cauchy–Schwarz inequality)

Let $u, v \in L_2(\Omega)$; then

$$|(u, v)| \leq \|u\|_{L_2(\Omega)} \|v\|_{L_2(\Omega)}.$$

Remark. The space $L_2(\Omega)$ equipped with the inner product (\cdot, \cdot) (and the associated norm $\|u\|_{L_2(\Omega)} = (u, u)^{1/2}$) is an example of a Hilbert space.

Remark. The space $L_2(\Omega)$ equipped with the inner product (\cdot, \cdot) (and the associated norm $\|u\|_{L_2(\Omega)} = (u, u)^{1/2}$) is an example of a Hilbert space.

In general, a linear space X , equipped with an inner product $(\cdot, \cdot)_X$ (and the associated norm $\|u\|_X = (u, u)_X^{1/2}$) is called a Hilbert space if, whenever $\{u_m\}_{m=1}^\infty$ is a Cauchy sequence in X , i.e. a sequence of elements of X such that

$$\lim_{n, m \rightarrow \infty} \|u_n - u_m\|_X = 0,$$

then there exists a $u \in X$ such that $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \|u - u_m\|_X = 0$ (i.e., the sequence $\{u_m\}_{m=1}^\infty$ converges to u in the norm of X).

Sobolev spaces

Suppose that u is locally integrable on Ω (i.e. $u \in L_1(\omega)$ for each bounded open set ω , with $\bar{\omega} \subset \Omega$).

Sobolev spaces

Suppose that u is locally integrable on Ω (i.e. $u \in L_1(\omega)$ for each bounded open set ω , with $\bar{\omega} \subset \Omega$). Suppose also that there exists a function w_α , locally integrable on Ω , and such that

$$\int_{\Omega} w_\alpha(x) v(x) dx = (-1)^{|\alpha|} \int_{\Omega} u(x) D^\alpha v(x) \quad \forall v \in C_0^\infty(\Omega).$$

Then w_α is called the *weak derivative* of u (of order $|\alpha| = \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n$) and we write $w_\alpha = D^\alpha u$.

Sobolev spaces

Suppose that u is locally integrable on Ω (i.e. $u \in L_1(\omega)$ for each bounded open set ω , with $\bar{\omega} \subset \Omega$). Suppose also that there exists a function w_α , locally integrable on Ω , and such that

$$\int_{\Omega} w_\alpha(x) v(x) dx = (-1)^{|\alpha|} \int_{\Omega} u(x) D^\alpha v(x) \quad \forall v \in C_0^\infty(\Omega).$$

Then w_α is called the *weak derivative* of u (of order $|\alpha| = \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n$) and we write $w_\alpha = D^\alpha u$.

Clearly, if u is a smooth function then its weak derivatives coincide with those in the classical (pointwise) sense. To simplify the notation, we shall use the letter D to denote both a classical and a weak derivative.

EXAMPLE Let $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^1$, and let $u(x) = (1 - |x|)_+$. Here, for a real number y , $y_+ := \max\{y, 0\}$.

EXAMPLE Let $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^1$, and let $u(x) = (1 - |x|)_+$. Here, for a real number y , $y_+ := \max\{y, 0\}$. Clearly u is not differentiable at $x = 0, \pm 1$.

EXAMPLE Let $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^1$, and let $u(x) = (1 - |x|)_+$. Here, for a real number y , $y_+ := \max\{y, 0\}$. Clearly u is not differentiable at $x = 0, \pm 1$. However, because u is locally integrable on Ω it may still have a weak derivative.

EXAMPLE Let $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^1$, and let $u(x) = (1 - |x|)_+$. Here, for a real number y , $y_+ := \max\{y, 0\}$. Clearly u is not differentiable at $x = 0, \pm 1$. However, because u is locally integrable on Ω it may still have a weak derivative. Indeed, for any $v \in C_0^\infty(\Omega)$:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} u(x) v'(x) dx &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (1 - |x|)_+ v'(x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 (1 - |x|) v'(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^0 (1 + x) v'(x) dx + \int_0^1 (1 - x) v'(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^0 (-1) v(x) dx + \int_0^1 (+1) v(x) dx \\ &= - \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} w(x) v(x) dx, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$w(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < -1, \\ 1, & x \in (-1, 0), \\ -1, & x \in (0, 1), \\ 0, & x > 1. \end{cases} \quad \text{Thus, } w = u' = Du \quad \diamond$$

Let k be a nonnegative integer. We define (with D^α denoting a weak derivative of order $|\alpha|$)

$$H^k(\Omega) := \{u \in L_2(\Omega) : D^\alpha u \in L_2(\Omega), \quad |\alpha| \leq k\}.$$

$H^k(\Omega)$ is called a Sobolev space of order k ; it is equipped with the (Sobolev) norm

$$\|u\|_{H^k(\Omega)} := \left(\sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} \|D^\alpha u\|_{L_2(\Omega)}^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

and the inner product

$$(u, v)_{H^k(\Omega)} := \sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} (D^\alpha u, D^\alpha v).$$

With this inner product, $H^k(\Omega)$ is a Hilbert space (for the definition of Hilbert space, see the remark in Section 1.2).

With this inner product, $H^k(\Omega)$ is a Hilbert space (for the definition of Hilbert space, see the remark in Section 1.2). Letting

$$|u|_{H^k(\Omega)} := \left(\sum_{|\alpha|=k} \|D^\alpha u\|_{L_2(\Omega)}^2 \right)^{1/2},$$

we can write

$$\|u\|_{H^k(\Omega)} = \left(\sum_{j=0}^k |u|_{H^j(\Omega)}^2 \right)^{1/2}.$$

With this inner product, $H^k(\Omega)$ is a Hilbert space (for the definition of Hilbert space, see the remark in Section 1.2). Letting

$$|u|_{H^k(\Omega)} := \left(\sum_{|\alpha|=k} \|D^\alpha u\|_{L_2(\Omega)}^2 \right)^{1/2},$$

we can write

$$\|u\|_{H^k(\Omega)} = \left(\sum_{j=0}^k |u|_{H^j(\Omega)}^2 \right)^{1/2}.$$

$|\cdot|_{H^k(\Omega)}$ is called the Sobolev semi-norm (it is only a semi-norm rather than a norm because if $|u|_{H^k(\Omega)} = 0$ for $u \in H^k(\Omega)$ it does not necessarily follow that $u \equiv 0$ on Ω .)

EXAMPLE

$$H^0(\Omega) = L_2(\Omega).$$

$$H^1(\Omega) := \left\{ u \in L_2(\Omega) : \partial_{x_j} u := \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_j} \in L_2(\Omega), \quad j = 1, \dots, n \right\},$$

$$\|u\|_{H^1(\Omega)} := \left\{ \|u\|_{L_2(\Omega)}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n \|\partial_{x_j} u\|_{L_2(\Omega)}^2 \right\}^{1/2},$$

$$|u|_{H^1(\Omega)} := \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n \|\partial_{x_j} u\|_{L_2(\Omega)}^2 \right\}^{1/2}.$$

Similarly,

$$H^2(\Omega) := \left\{ u \in L_2(\Omega) : \partial_{x_j} u \in L_2(\Omega), \partial_{x_i x_j}^2 u \in L_2(\Omega), i, j = 1, \dots, n \right\},$$

$$\|u\|_{H^2(\Omega)} := \left\{ \|u\|_{L_2(\Omega)}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n \|\partial_{x_j} u\|_{L_2(\Omega)}^2 + \sum_{i,j=1}^n \|\partial_{x_i x_j}^2 u\|_{L_2(\Omega)}^2 \right\}^{1/2},$$

$$\|u\|_{H^2(\Omega)} := \left\{ \sum_{i,j=1}^n \|\partial_{x_i x_j}^2 u\|_{L_2(\Omega)}^2 \right\}^{1/2}.$$

We define a special Sobolev space,

$$H_0^1(\Omega) := \{u \in H^1(\Omega) : u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega\},$$

i.e. $H_0^1(\Omega)$ is the set of all functions u in $H^1(\Omega)$ such that $u = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$, the boundary of the set Ω .

We define a special Sobolev space,

$$H_0^1(\Omega) := \{u \in H^1(\Omega) : u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega\},$$

i.e. $H_0^1(\Omega)$ is the set of all functions u in $H^1(\Omega)$ such that $u = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$, the boundary of the set Ω .

We shall use this space when studying partial differential equations that are coupled with a homogeneous (Dirichlet) boundary condition: $u = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$.

We define a special Sobolev space,

$$H_0^1(\Omega) := \{u \in H^1(\Omega) : u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega\},$$

i.e. $H_0^1(\Omega)$ is the set of all functions u in $H^1(\Omega)$ such that $u = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$, the boundary of the set Ω .

We shall use this space when studying partial differential equations that are coupled with a homogeneous (Dirichlet) boundary condition: $u = 0$ on $\partial\Omega$.

$H_0^1(\Omega)$ is a Hilbert space, with the same norm and inner product as $H^1(\Omega)$.

We conclude with the following important result.

Lemma (Poincaré–Friedrichs inequality)

Suppose that Ω is a bounded open set in \mathbb{R}^n (with a sufficiently smooth boundary $\partial\Omega$) and let $u \in H_0^1(\Omega)$; then, there exists a positive constant $c_(\Omega)$, independent of u , such that*

$$\int_{\Omega} u^2(x) \, dx \leq c_* \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{\Omega} |\partial_{x_i} u(x)|^2 \, dx. \quad (1)$$

PROOF. We shall prove this for the special case of a rectangular domain $\Omega = (a, b) \times (c, d)$ in \mathbb{R}^2 . The proof for general Ω is analogous.

PROOF. We shall prove this for the special case of a rectangular domain $\Omega = (a, b) \times (c, d)$ in \mathbb{R}^2 . The proof for general Ω is analogous. Evidently,

$$u(x, y) = u(a, y) + \int_a^x \partial_x u(\xi, y) \, d\xi = \int_a^x \partial_x u(\xi, y) \, d\xi, \quad c < y < d.$$

PROOF. We shall prove this for the special case of a rectangular domain $\Omega = (a, b) \times (c, d)$ in \mathbb{R}^2 . The proof for general Ω is analogous. Evidently,

$$u(x, y) = u(a, y) + \int_a^x \partial_x u(\xi, y) d\xi = \int_a^x \partial_x u(\xi, y) d\xi, \quad c < y < d.$$

Thus, by the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega} |u(x, y)|^2 dx dy &= \int_a^b \int_c^d \left| \int_a^x \partial_x u(\xi, y) d\xi \right|^2 dx dy \\ &\leq \int_a^b \int_c^d (x - a) \left(\int_a^x |\partial_x u(\xi, y)|^2 d\xi \right) dx dy \\ &\leq \int_a^b (x - a) dx \left(\int_c^d \int_a^b |\partial_x u(\xi, y)|^2 d\xi dy \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(b - a)^2 \int_{\Omega} |\partial_x u(x, y)|^2 dx dy. \end{aligned}$$

Analogously,

$$\int_{\Omega} |u(x, y)|^2 \, dx \, dy \leq \frac{1}{2}(d - c)^2 \int_{\Omega} |\partial_y u(x, y)|^2 \, dx \, dy.$$

Analogously,

$$\int_{\Omega} |u(x, y)|^2 \, dx \, dy \leq \frac{1}{2}(d - c)^2 \int_{\Omega} |\partial_y u(x, y)|^2 \, dx \, dy.$$

By adding the two inequalities, we obtain

$$\int_{\Omega} |u(x, y)|^2 \, dx \, dy \leq c_{\star} \int_{\Omega} (|\partial_x u|^2 + |\partial_y u|^2) \, dx \, dy,$$

where $c_{\star} = \left(\frac{2}{(b - a)^2} + \frac{2}{(d - c)^2} \right)^{-1}$.

□