

6. Two Point Boundary Value Problems

An Example

There are classical problems of great significance for practical applications and mathematical theory. The prototypical problem is

$$\begin{aligned} u_{xx} &= f(x) & 0 < x < 1 \\ u(0) &= u(1) = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (6.1)$$

The solution can be found in terms of a Green's function $G(x, y)$ or an ~~eigenfunction~~ eigenfunction expansion.

The Green's function is

$$G(x, y) = \begin{cases} -(1-y)x & 0 < x < y < 1 \\ -y(1-x) & 0 < y < x < 1 \end{cases} \quad (6.2)$$

which satisfies $G(0, y) = G(1, y) = 0 \quad 0 < y < 1$

$$\begin{aligned} G(x, x+) &= G(x, x-) \\ G_x(x, x+) - G_x(x, x-) &= 1 \\ G_{xx}(x, y) &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (6.3)$$

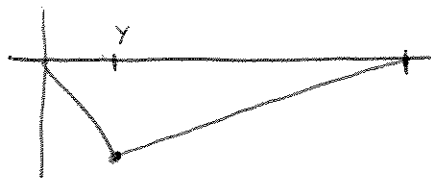


Fig 6.1 Plot of $G(x, y)$ vs x .

The solution of (6.1) is then

$$\begin{aligned} u(x) &= \int_0^1 G(x, y) f(y) dy \\ &= -\int_0^x y(1-x) f(y) dy - \int_x^1 (1-y)x f(y) dy \end{aligned} \quad (6.4)$$

The eigenfunctions for (6.1) are

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_k &= \sqrt{2} \sin k\pi x \\ \lambda_k &= -k^2\pi^2 \end{aligned} \quad (6.5)$$

satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi_{kxx} &= \lambda_k \varphi_k & 0 < x < 1 \\ \varphi_k(0) &= \varphi_k(1) = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (6.6)$$

These are orthonormal, i.e.

$$\int_0^1 \varphi_k(x) \varphi_l(x) dx = \delta_{kl} = \begin{cases} 0 & k \neq l \\ 1 & k = l \end{cases} \quad (6.7)$$

They are also complete, i.e. any function^u satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} u(0) &= u(1) = 0 \\ \int_0^1 u_x^2 dx &< \infty \end{aligned} \quad (6.8)$$

can be written as

$$u(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \varphi_k(x) \quad (6.9)$$

$$a_k = (u, \varphi_k) = \int_0^1 u(x) \varphi_k(x) dx \quad (6.10)$$

in which the sum converges in the norm $\int_0^1 u^2 + u_x^2 dx$.

Expand u and f

$$u(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \varphi_k(x) \quad (6.11)$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k \varphi_k(x).$$

Then ~~the problem~~ $u_{xx} = f$ becomes

$$u_{xx} \text{ in } a = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k a_k \phi_k = \sum b_k \phi_k \quad (6.12)$$

so that

$$a_k = \frac{b_k}{\lambda_k} = - \frac{b_k}{\pi^2 k^2} \quad (6.13)$$

General System

More generally consider a 2nd order operator

$$L u = p_0 u_{xx} + p_1 u_x + p_2 u \quad a < x < b \quad (6.14)$$

$$B_i u = a_{i1} u(a) + a_{i2} u(b) + a_{i3} u_x(a) + a_{i4} u_x(b) \quad i=1, 2$$

with $p_j = p_j(x)$, ~~and~~ smooth functions and

$$p_0(x) \neq 0 \quad \forall \quad a < x < b. \quad (6.15)$$

Define the inner product

$$(u, v) = \int_a^b u(x) \overline{v(x)} \underbrace{q(x)}_{\text{and } q \text{ a smooth real, positive function}} dx \quad (6.16)$$

for u and v smooth complex functions. Require that L is self-adjoint with boundary operators B_1 and B_2 ; i.e.

if

$$B_1 u = B_2 u = B_1 v = B_2 v = 0 \quad (6.17)$$

then

$$(u, L v) = (L u, v). \quad (6.18)$$

Under this assumption, the problem

$$L u = f$$

$$B_1 u = B_2 u = 0$$

(6.19)

has all of the properties described above for the problem (6.1).

For simplicity we take $p_0 \equiv 1$, and $B_1 u = u(a)$ i.e.

$$Lu = u_{xx} + p_1(x) u_x + p_2(x) u \quad (6.20)$$

and

$$B_1 u = u(a) \quad (6.21)$$

$$B_2 u = u(b)$$

so that the boundary conditions are

$$u(a) = u(b) = 0. \quad (6.22)$$

Green's Function

In this section, we construct the Green's function $G(x, y)$ for the problem operator L from (6.20) with boundary conditions (6.22).

We first define the delta function $\delta(x)$ and Heaviside function $H(x)$ by

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < 0 \\ 1 & x > 0 \end{cases} \quad (6.23)$$

and for any ^{continuous} function φ

$$\int \delta(x) \varphi(x) dx = \varphi(0). \quad (6.24)$$

It follows that

$$H(x-y) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < y \\ 1 & x > y \end{cases} \quad (6.25)$$

$$\int \delta(x-y) \varphi(x) dx = \varphi(y) \quad (6.26)$$

and

$$H_x(x) = \delta(x) \quad (6.27)$$

Now we derive equations for G . For any smooth function f , the solution of

$$\begin{aligned} Lu &= f & a < x < b \\ u(a) &= u(b) = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (6.28)$$

should be given by

$$u(x) = \int_a^b G(x,y) f(y) dy \quad (6.29)$$

Apply L to (6.29) to get for any f

$$Lu = \int_a^b L_x G(x,y) f(y) dy = f(x) \quad (6.30)$$

$$\int_a^b G(a,y) f(y) dy = \int_a^b G(b,y) f(y) dy$$

from which it follows that

$$L_x G(x,y) = \delta(x-y) \quad \forall x,y \in (a,b) \quad (6.31)$$

$$G(a,y) = G(b,y) = 0$$

The construction of G depends on an additional assumption: that the problem (6.28) has no nontrivial homogeneous solution, i.e. if

$$\begin{aligned} L\varphi_0 &= 0 & a < x < b \\ \varphi_0(a) &= \varphi_0(b) = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (6.32)$$

then

$$\varphi_0 \equiv 0. \quad (6.33)$$

Otherwise (if (6.32) has a solution $\varphi_0 \neq 0$), then ~~we~~ take the inner product of (6.28) with φ_0 to get

$$(\varphi_0, f) = (\varphi_0, Lu) = (L\varphi_0, u) = 0 \quad (6.34)$$

In this case (6.28) can be solved only if f satisfies (6.34) and the construction of G must be changed.

Under the condition (6.33), we now construct G .

Let φ_1, φ_2 solve

$$L\varphi_i = 0 \quad a < x < b \quad (6.35)$$

with

$$\begin{pmatrix} \varphi_1 & \varphi_2 \\ \varphi_{1x} & \varphi_{2x} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{at } x=0. \quad (6.36)$$

These functions exist by solution of the initial value problem.

Define the Wronskian

$$W(y) = \varphi_1(y)\varphi_{2y}(y) - \varphi_2(y)\varphi_{1y}(y) \quad (6.37)$$

with

$$W(a) = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} W_y &= \varphi_1 \varphi_{2yy} - \varphi_2 \varphi_{1yy} \\ &= -\varphi_1 (p_1 \varphi_{2y} + p_2 \varphi_2) + \varphi_2 (p_1 \varphi_{1y} + p_2 \varphi_1) \\ &= -p_1 (\varphi_1 \varphi_{2y} - \varphi_2 \varphi_{1y}) \\ &= -p_1 W \end{aligned} \quad (6.38)$$

so that

~~$$W(y) = \exp\left(-\int_a^y p(y') dy'\right)$$~~

$$W(y) = \exp\left(-\int_a^y p(y') dy'\right) \neq 0 \quad \forall y. \quad (6.39)$$

Set

$$K(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{w(y)} (\varphi_1(y) \varphi_2(x) - \varphi_2(y) \varphi_1(x)) & a < y < x \\ 0 & a < x < y < b \end{cases} \quad (6.40)$$

This satisfies

$$L_x K_x = 0 \quad x \neq y \quad (6.41)$$

$$K(y^+, y) = K(y^-, y) = 0 \quad (6.42)$$

and

$$K_x = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{w(y)} (\varphi_1(y) \varphi_{2x}(x) - \varphi_2(y) \varphi_{1x}(x)) & a < y < x \\ 0 & a < x < y < b \end{cases} \quad (6.43)$$

so that

$$K_x(y^+, y) = 1 \quad (6.44)$$

$$K_x(y^-, y) = 0$$

Since K is continuous in x and its first derivative has a jump of size 1, then ~~this shows~~ that for y near x , $K_{xx} \cong \delta(x-y)$. In fact

$$L_x K(x, y) = \delta(x-y). \quad (6.45)$$

1/2 In order to satisfy the boundary conditions, set

$$G(x, y) = K(x, y) + \alpha(y) \varphi_1(x) + \beta(y) \varphi_2(x) \quad (6.46)$$

so that

$$G(a, y) = 0 \quad (6.47)$$

$$G(b, y) = 0$$

This is a linear system for α and β ; i.e.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \varphi_1(a) & \varphi_2(a) \\ \varphi_1(b) & \varphi_2(b) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha(y) \\ \beta(y) \end{pmatrix} = - \begin{pmatrix} K(a, y) \\ K(b, y) \end{pmatrix} \quad (6.48)$$

This is solvable, provided that

$$\varphi_1(a)\varphi_2(b) - \varphi_2(a)\varphi_1(b) \neq 0. \quad (6.49)$$

If this condition is violated, then there are constants α_0, β_0 with

$$\begin{pmatrix} \varphi_1(a) & \varphi_2(a) \\ \varphi_1(b) & \varphi_2(b) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \beta_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (6.50)$$

so that the function

$$\varphi_0(x) = \alpha_0 \varphi_1(x) + \beta_0 \varphi_2(x) \quad (6.51)$$

satisfies

$$L \varphi_0 = 0 \quad (6.52)$$

$$\varphi_0(a) = \varphi_0(b) = 0$$

in contradiction with the assumption (6.33). (This is the only place that (6.33) is used).

Now that the Green's function $G(x, y)$ has been constructed, we can define the Green's operator \mathcal{J} by

$$\mathcal{J}f(x) = \int_a^b G(x, y) f(y) dy \quad (6.53)$$

Then

$$L \mathcal{J}f = f \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{J}Lu = u \quad (6.54)$$

i.e.

$$\mathcal{J} = L^{-1} \quad (6.55)$$

In particular \mathcal{J} is self-adjoint and G is continuous with bounded derivative.

Self-adjointness of \mathcal{D} implies that

$$G(x, y) = G(y, x) \quad (6.56)$$

Eigenfunctions and Eigenvalues

Consider the eigenfunction problem

~~$$L\psi = \lambda \psi$$

$$B_1\psi = B_2\psi = 0$$~~

$$L\psi = \lambda \psi \quad (6.57)$$

$$B_1\psi = B_2\psi = 0$$

Set $\varphi = L\psi$. Then since $\mathcal{D} = L^{-1}$,

$$\mathcal{D}\varphi = \mu \varphi \quad (6.58)$$

with

$$\mu = \lambda^{-1} \quad (6.59)$$

An important advantage of using \mathcal{D} rather than L is that \mathcal{D} is a bounded operator, whereas L is unbounded. Also, the boundary conditions are built into \mathcal{D} .

The problem (6.58) will be solved by a variational principle. Define the Rayleigh-Ritz quotient as

$$\frac{(u, \mathcal{D}u)}{(u, u)} \quad (6.60)$$

We will show that

$$\sup_{u \in L^2} \frac{|(u, \mathcal{L}u)|}{(u, u)} = \sup_{\|u\|=1} |(u, \mathcal{L}u)| \equiv \|\mathcal{L}\| \quad (6.61)$$

yields an eigenvalue. This is

Theorem 6.1 There is an eigenvalue μ for \mathcal{L} with

$$\mu = \|\mathcal{L}\| \quad \text{or} \quad \mu = -\|\mathcal{L}\| \quad (6.62)$$

The proof of this theorem requires several technical results first.

Proposition 6.2 Arzela-Ascoli Theorem

Let u_n be uniformly bounded and equi-continuous, i.e. there exists C independent of n and x such that

$$|u_n(x)| < C \quad (6.63)$$

and for all $\varepsilon \exists \delta(\varepsilon)$ independent of x, x' and n such that

$$\text{if } |x - x'| < \delta(\varepsilon), \text{ then } |u_n(x) - u_n(x')| < \varepsilon \quad (6.64)$$

Then there exists a subsequence u_{n_i} that is uniformly convergent

$$u_{n_i} \rightarrow u \quad i \rightarrow \infty. \quad (6.65)$$

Proposition 6.3

If u_n satisfy $\|u_n\| \leq C$, then $\mathcal{L}u_n$ are uniformly bounded and equicontinuous

Proof of Prop. 6.3

Since $|G| \leq c$ is bounded then

$$|\mathcal{J}u_n| = \left| \int G u_n dy \right|$$

$$\leq c \int_a^b u_n dy$$

$$\leq c \left(\int_a^b u_n^2 dy \right)^{1/2} \left(\int_a^b 1 dy \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\leq c (b-a)^{1/2} \|u_n\|$$

$$\leq c^2 (b-a)^{1/2} \quad (6.66)$$

Next let $\varepsilon > 0$ and let Δx be such that $|G(x+\Delta x) - G(x)| < \varepsilon$.

Then

$$|\mathcal{J}u_n(x+\Delta x) - \mathcal{J}u_n(x)| \leq \int_a^b |G(x+\Delta x, y) - G(x, y)| |u_n(y)| dy$$

$$\leq \varepsilon \int_a^b |u_n| dy$$

$$\leq \varepsilon (b-a)^{1/2} c^2 \quad (6.67)$$

which finishes the proof.

Now define a different norm on \mathcal{Y} than (6.61).

Definition The operator norm is

$$\| \mathcal{Y} \| = \sup_{\|u\|=1} \| \mathcal{Y}u \| \quad (6.68)$$

Proposition 6.4 The two norms (6.61) and (6.68) are equal, i.e.

$$\| \mathcal{Y} \| = \| \mathcal{Y} \| \quad (6.69)$$

i.e.

$$\sup_{\|u\|=1} | (u, \mathcal{Y}u) | = \sup_{\|u\|=1} (\mathcal{Y}u, \mathcal{Y}u)^{1/2} \quad (6.70)$$

Proof of Prop 6.4

Since for $\|u\|=1$

$$\begin{aligned} | (u, \mathcal{Y}u) | &\leq \|u\| \| \mathcal{Y}u \| \\ &\leq \| \mathcal{Y} \| \end{aligned} \quad (6.71)$$

Then

$$\| \mathcal{Y} \| \leq \| \mathcal{Y} \| \quad (6.72)$$

Next show the reverse inequality. For any u and v

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathcal{Y}u, u) + (\mathcal{Y}v, v) + z(\mathcal{Y}u, v) &= (\mathcal{Y}(u+v), (u+v)) \\ &\leq \| \mathcal{Y} \| \|u+v\|^2 \end{aligned} \quad (6.73)$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathcal{Y}u, u) + (\mathcal{Y}v, v) - z(\mathcal{Y}u, v) &= (\mathcal{Y}(u-v), (u-v)) \\ &\geq - \| \mathcal{Y} \| \|u-v\|^2 \end{aligned} \quad (6.74)$$

Subtract these to get

$$\begin{aligned} 4 (g_u, v) &\leq 4 \|g\| (\|u+v\|^2 + \|u-v\|^2) \\ &= 2 \|g\| (\|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2) \end{aligned} \quad (6.75)$$

Set $v = g_u / \|g_u\|$ with $\|u\|=1$ and $\|v\|=1$. The left hand side is

$$4 (g_u, g_u) / \|g_u\| = 4 \|g_u\|$$

and the right hand side is

$$2 \|g\|$$

It follows that (after dividing by 4) for any $\|u\|=1$,

$$\|g_u\| \leq \|g\| \quad (6.76)$$

Since Thus

$$\|g\| = \sup_{\|u\|=1} \|g_u\| \leq \|g\| \quad (6.77)$$

Combine this with (6.72) to get

$$\|g\| = \|g\|, \quad (6.78)$$

which finishes the proof.

Now we can prove Theorem 6.1

Proof of Theorem 6.1

Let u_n be a sequence of functions such that

$$\begin{aligned} \|u_n\| &= 1 \\ (\mathcal{D}u_n, u_n) &\rightarrow \|\mathcal{D}\| \text{ or } (\mathcal{D}u_n, u_n) \rightarrow -\|\mathcal{D}\| \end{aligned} \quad (6.79)$$

For simplicity assume that the sign is +. ^{and set $\mu = \|\mathcal{D}\|$} By Proposition 6.3, $\mathcal{D}u_n$ is uniformly bounded and equicontinuous and by Proposition 6.2,

$$\mathcal{D}u_n \rightarrow \varphi_0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty \quad (6.80)$$

uniformly on $[a, b]$ after replacement of u_n by a subsequence (if necessary).

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathcal{D}u_n - \varphi_0\| &\rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty \\ \|\mathcal{D}u_n\| &\rightarrow \|\varphi_0\| \end{aligned} \quad (6.81)$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathcal{D}u_n - \mu u_n\|^2 &= \|\mathcal{D}u_n\|^2 + \mu^2 \|u_n\|^2 - 2\mu (\mathcal{D}u_n, u_n) \\ &\rightarrow \|\varphi_0\|^2 + \mu^2 - 2\mu \|\mathcal{D}\| \\ &= \|\varphi_0\|^2 - \mu^2 \end{aligned} \quad (6.82)$$

This must be non-negative, so that

$$\|\varphi_0\|^2 \geq \mu^2 > 0 \quad (6.83)$$

Thus $\varphi_0 \neq 0$.

QED

also

$$\| \mathcal{D}u_n \|^2 \leq \| \mathcal{D} \|^2 = \| | \mathcal{D} | \|^2 = \mu^2 \quad (6.84)$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq \| \mathcal{D}u_n - \mu u_n \|^2 &= \| \mathcal{D}u_n \|^2 + \mu^2 \| u_n \|^2 - 2\mu (\mathcal{D}u_n, u_n) \\ &\leq 2\mu^2 - 2\mu (\mathcal{D}u_n, u_n) \\ &\rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty \end{aligned}$$

by (6.79) and $\mu = \| | \mathcal{D} | \|$. Thus

$$\| \mathcal{D}u_n - \mu u_n \| \rightarrow 0 \quad (6.85)$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}\varphi_0 - \mu\varphi_0 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{D}u_n - \mu u_n) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (6.86)$$

Therefore φ_0 is an eigenfunction with eigenvalue μ .
This finishes the proof of Theorem 6.1.

Additional Eigenfunctions

(in absolute value)

The eigenvalue $\mu_0 = \pm \| \mathcal{L} \|$ is the largest eigenvalue.

To find the next largest eigenvalue, use the fact that the eigenfunctions for a self-adjoint operator are orthogonal, i.e. if

$$\mathcal{L} \varphi_0 = \mu_0 \varphi_0 \quad (6.87)$$

$$\mathcal{L} \varphi_1 = \mu_1 \varphi_1$$

with $\mu_0 \neq \mu_1$, then

$$(\varphi_0, \varphi_1) = 0 \quad (6.88)$$

If $\mu_0 = \mu_1$, but φ_0 and φ_1 are linearly independent, then we can always make φ_1 orthogonal to φ_0 by a linear combination of φ_0 and φ_1 ; i.e. for $\| \varphi_0 \| = 1$

$$\tilde{\varphi}_1 = \varphi_1 - (\varphi_0, \varphi_1) \varphi_0 \quad (6.89)$$

Now we use this fact and subtract off the φ_0 part of \mathcal{L} .

Set $\| \varphi_0 \| = 1$ and define

$$G_1(x, y) = G(x, y) - \mu_0 \varphi_0(x) \varphi_0(y) \quad (6.90)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_1 = \mathcal{L} - \mu_0 (\varphi_0, \cdot) \varphi_0.$$

Find φ_1 as in Theorem 6.1 by maximizing

$$\frac{1}{\| u \|^2} |(\mathcal{L}_1 u, u)| = \| \mathcal{L}_1 \| \quad (6.91)$$

and obtaining

$$\mu_1 = \pm \| \mathcal{L}_1 \| \quad (6.92)$$

with an eigenfunction φ_1 satisfying

$$\mathcal{L}_1 \varphi_1 = \mu_1 \varphi_1 \quad (6.93)$$

Now $\mathcal{L}_1 \varphi_0$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_1 \varphi_0 &= \mathcal{L} \varphi_0 - \mu_0 (\varphi_0, \varphi_0) \varphi_0 \\ &= \mu_0 \varphi_0 - \mu_0 \varphi_0 \\ &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (6.93)$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} (\varphi_0, \varphi_1) &= \mu_1^{-1} (\varphi_0, \mathcal{L}_1 \varphi_1) \\ &= \mu_1^{-1} (\mathcal{L}_1 \varphi_0, \varphi_1) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (6.94)$$

It follows that

$$\mathcal{L}_1 \varphi_1 = \mathcal{L} \varphi_1 \quad (6.95)$$

so that

$$\mathcal{L} \varphi_1 = \mu_1 \varphi_1. \quad (6.96)$$

Thus we have found the next eigenfunction and eigenvalue.

This can be continued sequentially. For the k -th eigenfunction define

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_k &= \mathcal{L}_{k-1} - \mu_{k-1} (\varphi_{k-1}, \cdot) \varphi_{k-1} \\ &= \mathcal{L} - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \mu_j (\varphi_j, \cdot) \varphi_j \end{aligned} \quad (6.97)$$

Then μ_k, φ_k are found from

$$\mu_k = \pm \|\mathcal{L}_k\| = \pm \sup_u \frac{|(\mathcal{L}_k u, u)|}{\|u\|^2} \quad (6.98)$$

as in Theorem 6.1

An alternative is the following:

$$\mu_k = \sup_{u \perp \{\varphi_0, \dots, \varphi_{k-1}\}} \frac{|(\mathcal{L}u, u)|}{\|u\|^2} \quad (6.99)$$

and φ_k is the function that achieves this sup.

A second alternative is even more powerful, since it does not use the eigenfunctions at all

$$\mu_k = \inf_{u_0, \dots, u_{k-1}} \sup_{u \perp \{u_0, \dots, u_{k-1}\}} \frac{|(\mathcal{L}u, u)|}{\|u\|^2} \quad (6.100)$$

This process terminates only if $\|\mathcal{L}^m\| = 0$ for some m .
In that case,

$$\mathcal{L}f = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \mu_j (f, \varphi_j) \varphi_j \quad (6.101)$$

and

$$\mathcal{L}u = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \mu_j^{-1} (u, \varphi_j) \varphi_j \quad (6.102)$$

But then

$$\mathcal{L}u = 0 \quad (6.103)$$

for all $u \perp \{\varphi_0, \dots, \varphi_{m-1}\}$ which was not allowed by assumption.

Properties of Eigenvalues and Eigenfunctions The eigenfunction $\{\phi_k\}$ have many of the properties of the harmonic function $\sin(k\pi x)$ on $[0,1]$.

Bessel's inequality For $f \in L^2(0,1)$ and ϕ_k an orthonormal sequence on $[0,1]$, then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |(f, \phi_k)|^2 \leq \|f\|^2$$

This result is independent of the 2-point BVP, as is the next result

Parseval's identity For $f \in L^2(0,1)$ and ϕ_k a complete orthonormal sequence on $[0,1]$, then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |(f, \phi_k)|^2 = \|f\|^2$$

A sequence is complete if $f = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \phi_k$ for some a_k and for any f , with convergence in L^2 .

Now we state properties of the sequence of eigenfunctions for a 2 pt BVP as discussed above.

Theorem 6.5 If $f \in C^2$ and f satisfies the boundary conditions, then

$$f = \sum_0^{\infty} (f, \phi_k) \phi_k$$

with uniform convergence.

Theorem 6.6 If $f \in L^2(0,1)$, then

$$f = \sum_0^{\infty} (f, \phi_k) \phi_k$$

with convergence in L^2 .

Theorem 6.7 (Mercer's Theorem)

$$G(x, y) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \lambda_k \phi_k(x) \phi_k(y)$$

with uniform convergence.