



4.0.1 Example for vector pde solutions

Here we deal with the following topic: **In a vector complete orthonormal set of functions, each of the components is overpopulated** (as explained below). **This then causes some counter-intuitive effects in vector normal mode solution expansions.** For simplicity we use 2-vectors in 1-space dimensions.

Consider a complete orthonormal set of 2-vector valued functions $\{\vec{\phi}_n(x)\}$, (4.1) VPS:eqn:01

$0 < x < 1$. Let the a_n and b_n be the components of $\vec{\phi}_n$, so that $\vec{\phi}_n = (a_n, b_n)$. (4.2) VPS:eqn:02

The orthonormality conditions are then $\delta_{nm} = \langle \vec{\phi}_n, \vec{\phi}_m \rangle_v = \langle a_n, a_m \rangle + \langle b_n, b_m \rangle$, (4.3) VPS:eqn:03

where $\langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle_v$ is the vector inner product,

while $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x) \bar{g}(x) dx$ denotes the standard inner product for scalar functions.

It follows that, for any square integrable vector function $\vec{u} = \vec{u}(x)$, $\vec{u} = \sum_n u_n \vec{\phi}_n$, (4.4) VPS:eqn:04

where $u_n = \langle \vec{u}, \vec{\phi}_n \rangle$. Component-wise,

with $\vec{u} = (\alpha, \beta)$, this is $\alpha = \sum_n (\alpha_n + \beta_n) a_n(x)$ and $\beta = \sum_n (\alpha_n + \beta_n) b_n(x)$, (4.5) VPS:eqn:05

where $\alpha_n = \langle \alpha, a_n \rangle$

and $\beta_n = \langle \beta, b_n \rangle$.

Weird thing #1. (4.5) shows two different (arbitrary) functions, α and β , expanded in terms of two different [†] function sets, $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$, using the **same coefficients** $u_n = \alpha_n + \beta_n$ **How is this possible?**

[†] If it was $a_n = b_n$, then it would be $\alpha = \beta$. At the very least the two sets have to be ordered differently.

Weird thing #2. Now we explain “weird thing #1” using another weird thing. Since α_n depends on α only (and β_n on β only), apply (4.4-4.5) to

$\vec{u} = (\alpha, 0)$ and $\vec{u} = (0, \beta)$, and conclude $0 = \sum_n \beta_n a_n(x)$ and $0 = \sum_n \alpha_n b_n(x)$. (4.6) VPS:eqn:06

Then

$\alpha = \sum_n \alpha_n a_n(x)$ and $\beta = \sum_n \beta_n b_n(x)$, (4.7) VPS:eqn:07

which removes the “how can we have the

same coefficients?” question, but opens up a deeper question:

How is (4.6) possible? (4.8) VPS:eqn:08

Explanation in remark 4.1. **Important: see remark 4.2!**

Remark 4.1 On the size of complete sets. Consider a finite dimensional vector space V . Then a base $\{\vec{x}_n\}$ has $N = \text{dimension}(V)$ elements. On the other hand, a base $\{\vec{\phi}_n = (\vec{a}_n, \vec{b}_n)\}$ for $V \oplus V$ (the set of all (\vec{x}, \vec{y}) with $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in V$) has $2N$ elements. This means that $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ have twice as many elements as needed for a base; thus (though complete sets) they are **not linearly independent**. When going to **infinite dimensions** we can no longer talk about “twice as many”, but **it remains true that $\{a_n\}$ and $\{b_n\}$ in (4.2) are not linearly independent**. Hence **there is nothing strange about (4.6)**.

Example 1: Consider the operator ^a ∂_x^2 on 2-vector valued functions on $[0, \pi]$, vanishing at the end points. This has double eigenvalues $\{-n^2\}$, with eigenfunctions $\vec{\phi}_n = (\sin(nx), 0)$ and $\vec{\psi}_n = (0, \sin(nx))$. This corresponds to the **trivial situation**: “half” the $\{a_n\}$ vanish, and the others form an orthonormal set (with the $\{b_n\}$ doing the reverse, and vanishing exactly when the $\{a_n\}$ do not). Then (4.6) follows trivially.

Example 2: Consider ^b $\mathcal{L}(f, g) = (g_x, f_x)$ on 2-vector valued functions on $[0, \pi]$, with $f = 0$ at the end points. This has eigenvalues $\{-in\}$, with eigenfunctions $\vec{\phi}_n = (\sin(nx), i \cos(nx))$. Then $\sin(nx)$ shows up twice in the $\{a_n\}$, and $\cos(nx)$ twice in the $\{b_n\}$. So, again, no problem with (4.6).

^a This operator is self-adjoint and negative definite. ^b This operator is skew-adjoint





Remark 4.2 Implications for pde solutions. Suppose now that the set in (4.1) is the set of eigenfunctions for the operator \mathcal{L} in a pde $\vec{u}_t = \mathcal{L} \vec{u}$. Then the solution to the pde with initial values $\vec{u}(\mathbf{0}, t) = (\alpha, \beta)$ is $u = \sum u_n e^{s_n t} \vec{\phi}$, where the $\{s_n\}$ are the eigenvalues.

Component-wise
$$u_1 = \sum_n (\alpha_n + \beta_n) e^{s_n t} a_n(x) \text{ and } u_2 = \sum_n (\alpha_n + \beta_n) e^{s_n t} b_n(x). \quad (4.9) \quad \text{VPS:eqn:09}$$

Question: **does (4.6)**

mean that we can write $u_1 = \sum_n \alpha_n e^{s_n t} a_n(x)$ **and** $u_2 = \sum_n \beta_n e^{s_n t} b_n(x)$?

Absolutely no!

(4.6) implies neither $0 = \sum_n \beta_n e^{s_n t} a_n(x)$ **nor** $0 = \sum_n \alpha_n e^{s_n t} b_n(x)$. This is true only for $t = 0$.

Intuition: For t small

the first component of the solution is dominated by the initial data for the first component (and similarly for the second). But after a while the interaction (generally) will both sets of initial data be important for both component. **This behavior should be expected, so that (in fact) (4.6) is not only not “strange”, but in fact what intuition dictates it should happen!** ♣