

4 Sobolev spaces

Review. Lax-Milgram lemma

Bilinear form is a mapping $a(\cdot, \cdot)$ defined on $H \times H$ such that for each fixed $v \in H$, the mappings $a(v, \cdot)$ and $a(\cdot, v)$ are linear.

Theorem (Lax-Milgram lemma)

Assume that H is a Hilbert space and the bilinear form $a : H \times H \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfies

$$(\text{continuity}) \quad |a(u, v)| \leq \alpha \|u\|_H \|v\|_H \quad \forall u, v \in H \quad (\alpha > 0) \quad (1)$$

$$(\text{coercivity}) \quad \beta \|u\|^2 \leq a(u, u) \quad \forall u \in H \quad (\beta > 0) \quad (2)$$

Then for each bounded linear functional $F : H \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ there exists a unique element $u \in H$ such that

$$B(u, v) = F(v) \quad \forall v \in H.$$

Proof. We give only a brief proof.

- We define the mapping $A : H \rightarrow H$ as follows: for any $u \in H$ there is a unique $w \in H$ so that $a(u, v) = (w, v)$ holds for all $v \in H$ (by Riesz theorem). Then we put $Au = w$.
- The mapping A is linear and bounded, satisfying $\|Au\|_H \leq \alpha \|u\|_H$.
- Moreover, from

$$\beta \|u\|_H^2 \leq a(u, u) = (Au, u) \leq \|Au\|_H \|u\|_H$$

we find that $\beta \|u\|_H \leq \|Au\|_H$ holds and therefore A is one-to-one and its range $R(A)$ is closed in H .

- We show that $R(A) = H$. Since $R(A)$ is closed, if $R(A) \neq H$ then there exists a nonzero element $w \in R(A)^\perp$. But then $\beta \|w\|_H^2 \leq a(w, w) = (Aw, w) = 0$, which is a contradiction.
- By Riesz theorem there is a unique w such that

$$F(v) = (w, v) \quad \forall v \in H$$

Because $R(A) = H$ and A is one-to-one, there is exactly one $u \in H$ so that $Au = w$ holds. Hence,

$$a(u, v) = (Au, v) = (w, v) = F(v) \quad \forall v \in H$$

- uniqueness: if there are two elements $u_1, u_2 \in H$ fulfilling the theorem, then $a(u_1 - u_2, v) = F(v) - F(v) = 0$. Putting $v = u_1 - u_2$ and using the coercivity, we find $u_1 = u_2$.

Lax-Milgram lemma actually tells us that $\sqrt{a(\cdot, \cdot)}$ is a norm on H equivalent to $\|\cdot\|_H$.

First, we would like to study, using the Lax-Milgram lemma, the existence of solution to the simplest magnetic field problem, i.e., in the case when $\nu \equiv 1$:

$$-\Delta u = f \quad \text{for } x \in \Omega, \quad (3)$$

$$u(x) = 0 \quad \text{on } \partial\Omega. \quad (4)$$

Here is the basic idea (for $\Omega = (0, 1)$, for simplicity):

- multiply the equation by a test function φ vanishing at boundary (i.e., $\varphi(0) = \varphi(1) = 0$), integrate over Ω and use by-parts integration:

$$-u'' = f \quad \Rightarrow \quad \int_0^1 -u'' \varphi \, dx = \int_0^1 f \varphi \, dx \quad \Rightarrow \quad \int_0^1 u' \varphi' \, dx = \int_0^1 f \varphi \, dx$$

- define the bilinear form a and linear functional F as

$$a(u, \varphi) = \int_0^1 u' \varphi' \, dx, \quad u, \varphi \in V$$

$$F(\varphi) = \int_0^1 f \varphi \, dx, \quad \varphi \in V$$

- use the Lax-Milgram lemma to show the existence of solution to $a(u, \varphi) = F(\varphi) \quad \forall \varphi \in V$.

However, there is an important question how to choose the space V above. From the assumptions of Lax-Milgram lemma, we require that V is a Hilbert space and that it is big enough so that the solution u belongs to it. We could take for V the space of continuously differentiable functions but then it is not a Hilbert space with the usual norm, and, moreover, the solution may not exist for some reasonable f because this space is too small. It turns out that the best choice is a Sobolev space, so before stating the exact proof of existence, we review basic facts about Sobolev spaces.

Review. Functions from $C_0^\infty(\Omega)$.

These are functions which are infinitely many times differentiable (this fact is denoted by the index ∞) and which are compactly supported inside Ω . Support of a function is the closure of the set of all points where the function is not zero. Here we require that the support is compact in Ω , which means that the function is different from zero only on a bounded subset of Ω and it vanishes on a neighbourhood of the boundary of Ω (that is why the index 0 is used).

Sobolev spaces, loosely said, are spaces of functions which have weak derivatives belonging to some L^p space. We shall first review the notion of weak derivative and then give a more precise definition of Sobolev spaces.

Review. Weak derivative.

The definition of weak derivative is motivated by the following integration by parts formula which is valid for $u \in C^1(\Omega)$ and a test function $\varphi \in C_0^\infty(\Omega)$:

$$\int_{\Omega} u \varphi_{x_i} dx = - \int_{\Omega} u_{x_i} \varphi, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

There are no boundary terms because φ has compact support in Ω and thus vanishes near $\partial\Omega$, so the boundary integral is zero. Now, the left-hand side of the above equation is defined even for functions u from $L^1(\Omega)$ and hence we can weaken the notion of derivative in the following manner:

Definition. Suppose $u, v \in L^1(\Omega)$. We say that v is the *first weak partial derivative* of u with respect to x_i (written $v = u_{x_i}$) provided

$$\int_{\Omega} u \varphi_{x_i} dx = - \int_{\Omega} v \varphi dx \quad \text{for all test functions } \varphi \in C_0^\infty(\Omega).$$

(If there does not exist such a function $v \in L^1(\Omega)$, then u does not possess a weak partial derivative.)

Lemma. The weak derivative, if it exists, is uniquely defined up to a set of measure zero.

Example. Let $n = 1$, $\Omega = (0, 2)$ and

$$u(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } 0 < x \leq 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } 1 \leq x < 2 \end{cases}$$

Then the weak derivative of u is

$$v(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 < x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } 1 < x < 2 \end{cases}$$

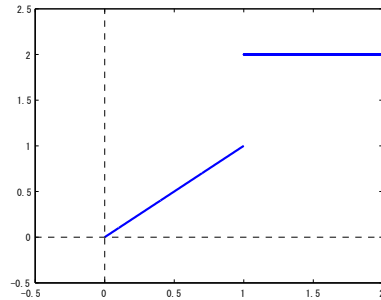
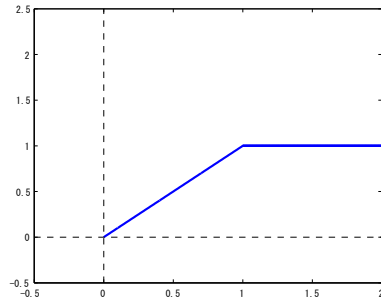
To prove it, we calculate

$$\int_0^2 u \varphi' dx = \int_0^1 x \varphi' dx + \int_1^2 \varphi' dx = - \int_0^1 \varphi dx + \varphi(1) - \varphi(1) = - \int_0^2 v \varphi dx.$$

Example. We define u by

$$u(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } 0 < x \leq 1 \\ 2 & \text{if } 1 \leq x < 2 \end{cases}$$

Then u' does not exist in the weak sense.



Now we are ready to define Sobolev spaces $W^{1,p}(\Omega)$. We will consider only domains $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ that are bounded and have Lipschitz continuous boundary, which is sufficiently wide class of domains for practical problems.

Review. Sobolev spaces.

Definition. The Sobolev space $W^{1,p}(\Omega)$ consists of all locally summable functions $u : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that u_{x_i} exist for $n = 1, \dots, n$ in the weak sense and u, u_{x_i} belong to $L^p(\Omega)$.

If $p = 2$ we usually write $H^1(\Omega) = W^{1,2}(\Omega)$.

The norm in $W^{1,p}(\Omega)$ is defined as follows:

$$\|u\|_{W^{1,p}(\Omega)} = \begin{cases} \left(\int_{\Omega} (|u|^p + \sum_{i=1}^n |u_{x_i}|^p) dx \right)^{1/p} & (1 \leq p < \infty) \\ \text{ess sup}_{\Omega} |u| + \sum_{i=1}^n \text{ess sup}_{\Omega} |u_{x_i}| & (p = \infty) \end{cases}$$

Lemma. For each $1 \leq p \leq \infty$ the Sobolev space $W^{1,p}(\Omega)$ is a Banach space.

Rellich's theorem. Let Ω be a domain with Lipschitz boundary. Then the identity mapping from $H^1(\Omega)$ to $L^2(\Omega)$ is compact, i.e., each bounded sequence in $H^1(\Omega)$ contains a subsequence converging in $L^2(\Omega)$.

Example.

- The space $H^1(\Omega)$ is a Hilbert space with the inner product

$$(f, g) = \int_{\Omega} (fg + \nabla f \cdot \nabla g) dx.$$

- It holds

$$\|v\|_{H^1(\Omega)}^2 = \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}^2 + \|\nabla v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}^2.$$

- From the above relation we have $H^1(\Omega) \subset L^2(\Omega)$.
- In one-dimensional case, H^1 -functions are Hölder continuous with exponent $\frac{1}{2}$, which can be shown using Hölder's inequality (we set $\Omega = (0, 1)$):

$$|v(z) - v(y)| = \left| \int_y^z v'(x) dx \right| \leq |z - y|^{1/2} \left(\int_y^z |v'(x)|^2 dx \right)^{1/2} \leq \|v\|_{H^1(0,1)} |z - y|^{1/2}, \quad y, z \in (0, 1).$$

Example. Let $\Omega = B(0, 1)$ be the unit ball in \mathbb{R}^3 . Then the function

$$u(x) = |x|^{-1/4} \quad (x \neq 0)$$

belongs to $H^1(\Omega)$. (Although it is not even continuous!)

To see this, we compute

$$u_{x_i}(x) = \frac{-x_i}{4|x|^{9/4}}, \quad x \neq 0, \tag{5}$$

which implies

$$|\nabla u(x)| = \frac{1}{4|x|^{5/4}}, \quad x \neq 0.$$

We show that the weak derivative exists by cutting out a small ball of radius ϵ around the origin and sending $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$. By Green's theorem

$$\int_{\Omega - B(0, \epsilon)} u \varphi_{x_i} dx = - \int_{\Omega - B(0, \epsilon)} u_{x_i} \varphi dx + \int_{\partial B(0, \epsilon)} u \varphi n_i dS,$$

where $n = (n_1, n_2, n_3)$ denotes the inward normal on $B(0, \epsilon)$, i.e. , $n_i = -x_i/|x|$. Now, the boundary term becomes small when ϵ is small:

$$\left| \int_{\partial B(0, \epsilon)} u \varphi n_i dS \right| \leq \max_{\Omega} |\varphi| \int_{\partial B(0, \epsilon)} \epsilon^{-1/4} dS \leq C \epsilon^{2-1/4} \rightarrow 0, \quad \text{as } \epsilon \rightarrow 0.$$

Thus the function defined by (5) is the weak derivative of u . Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 dx &= \frac{1}{16} \int_{\Omega} |x|^{-5/2} dx = \frac{1}{16} \int_0^1 \int_{\partial B(0, \rho)} \rho^{-5/2} dS d\rho \\ &= \frac{1}{16} \int_0^1 4\pi \rho^2 \rho^{-5/2} d\rho = \frac{\pi}{4} \int_0^1 \rho^{-1/2} d\rho = \frac{\pi}{2} \end{aligned}$$

In a similar way we can compute $\int_{\Omega} u^2 dx = 8\pi/5$.

Review. Traces.

By $W_0^{1,p}(\Omega)$ we denote the closure of $C_0^\infty(\Omega)$ in $W^{1,p}(\Omega)$. This means that if $u \in W_0^{1,p}(\Omega)$, then there exists a sequence of functions $u_m \in C_0^\infty(\Omega)$ such that $u_m \rightarrow u$ in $W^{1,p}(\Omega)$. It is customary to write $H_0^1(\Omega) = W_0^{1,2}(\Omega)$.

$H_0^1(\Omega)$ is interpreted as functions from $H^1(\Omega)$ that are zero on the boundary of Ω . This is not correct statement because functions from $H^1(\Omega)$ are defined only up to a set of measure zero and boundary has measure zero.

However, it can be made precise using the notion of trace operator.

Theorem on traces. For each lipschitz domain Ω there exists exactly one continuous linear operator $\gamma : H^1(\Omega) \rightarrow L^2(\partial\Omega)$, such that

$$\gamma v = v \Big|_{\partial\Omega} \quad \forall v \in C^\infty(\bar{\Omega}).$$

This theorem enables us to define the space $H_0^1(\Omega)$ as

$$H_0^1(\Omega) = \{v \in H^1(\Omega) ; \gamma v = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega\}.$$

Friedrichs inequality. Let Ω be a domain with lipschitz boundary. Then there is a constant C_F such that

$$\|v\|_{H^1(\Omega)} \leq C_F |v|_{H^1(\Omega)} \quad \forall v \in H_0^1(\Omega).$$

Here $|\cdot|_{H^1(\Omega)}$ is the seminorm defined as

$$|v|_{H^1(\Omega)} = \left(\int_{\Omega} |\nabla v|^2 \right)^{1/2}.$$

The fact that v has zero trace on the boundary is important!

This inequality says that the norm and seminorm on $H^1(\Omega)$ are equivalent norms for functions from $H_0^1(\Omega)$:

$$c\|v\|_{H^1(\Omega)} \leq |v|_{H^1(\Omega)} \leq \|v\|_{H^1(\Omega)} \quad \forall v \in H_0^1(\Omega).$$