

*The Mathematical Foundations  
of the Finite Element Method  
with Applications to Partial  
Differential Equations*

*Edited by*

*A. K. Aziz*

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of the Finite Element Method  
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*ACADEMIC PRESS RAPID MANUSCRIPT REPRODUCTION*

*Proceedings of a Symposium  
Held at the University of Maryland  
Baltimore, Maryland  
June 26-30, 1972*

# The Mathematical Foundations of the Finite Element Method with Applications to Partial Differential Equations

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Edited by

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**Academic Press**  
**New York and London**  
**1972**

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**ACADEMIC PRESS, INC.**

**111 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10003**

*United Kingdom Edition published by*  
**ACADEMIC PRESS, INC. (LONDON) LTD.**  
24/28 Oval Road, London NW1

**LIBRARY OF CONGRESS CATALOG CARD NUMBER: 72-82668**

**PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA**

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\*Manuscript not received in time to be included.

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## PREFACE

The Symposium on Mathematical Foundations of the Finite Element Method with Applications to Partial Differential Equations was held June 26-30, 1972, at the University of Maryland, Baltimore County Campus. Its purpose was to bring together a number of active numerical analysts currently involved in research in both theoretical and practical aspects of the finite element method. Among 250 participants were scientists from Canada, England, France, Germany, Ireland, Israel, Japan, Sweden, and Switzerland, thus providing the conference with a definite international flavor.

In recent years the scientific community, in particular the engineers, have focused considerable attention on the use of the finite element method. This is evidenced by the numerous national and international conferences held on this topic. In the last two years alone, 15 principal international conferences have been devoted to the finite element method, with the main emphasis on engineering applications.

As can be seen from the table of contents of these proceedings, the present symposium aims at bridging the gap between the mathematical and the practical aspects of the finite element method.

These proceedings consist of three parts. Part I gives the content of the 10 one-hour lectures given by Professor I. Babuška on the mathematical foundations of the field, while Part II contains all but one of the 16 one-hour lectures given by the invited speakers. These papers cover a large number of important results of both a theoretical and a practical nature. Part III contains the abstracts of 15-minute contributed talks.

The Division of Mathematics of the University of Maryland, Baltimore County Campus, and the U. S. Office of Naval Research were the joint sponsors of the symposium. The generous financial assistance of the U. S. Navy and the combined hard work of many members of the University of Maryland, faculty and staff, contributed immeasurably to the success of this meeting.

The editor wishes to express his sincere thanks to all these contributors. The advice and encouragement given by Professors I. Babuška, R. B. Kellogg, and G. J. Fix have been particularly helpful.

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**PART I**  
**SURVEY LECTURES ON THE**  
**MATHEMATICAL FOUNDATIONS**  
**OF THE FINITE ELEMENT METHOD**

*Ivo Babuška and A. K. Aziz*  
with the collaboration of  
*G. Fix and R. B. Kellogg*

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## FOREWORD

As indicated in the preface, numerous meetings and conferences in the last few years have been devoted to recent developments in theory and applications of the finite element method. The symposium at the University of Maryland, Baltimore County Campus, differed from the others in its orientation which was exclusively directed toward the theoretical foundations of the method.

To this end the organizing committee, which consisted of A.K. Aziz (Chairman), I. Babuška, N.P. Bhatia, and R.B. Kellogg, included in the program a series of ten lectures dealing exclusively with basic theoretical concepts.

The notes which follow are an attempt to focus on some of the most important of these principles. In their preparation, some constraints were imposed by the nature and goals of the conference. Therefore, they should be considered as notes describing the content of the ten lectures and not as a monograph on the finite element method.

The notes were prepared by I. Babuška<sup>1</sup> and A.K. Aziz<sup>2</sup> with significant contributions and help provided by R.B. Kellogg<sup>3</sup> and G. Fix.<sup>4</sup> In particular, Chapter 3 on regularity of the solution was written by R.B. Kellogg; Chapter 11 and parts of Chapter 10 were written jointly with G. Fix.

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*This work was supported in part by:*

<sup>1</sup>The Atomic Energy Commission, Contract No. AEC AT (40-1) 3443/5.

<sup>2</sup>The Naval Ordnance Laboratory Independent Research fund, and the Office of Naval Research, Contract No. NR-044-453.

<sup>3</sup>The National Science Foundation, Grant No. NSF GP 20555.

<sup>4</sup>The National Science Foundation, Grant No. NSF GP 18064.

I. BABUŠKA AND A. K. AZIZ

We would like to express our gratitude to Professors Kellogg and Fix for their valuable assistance and understanding. We must not fail also to thank Mrs. L. Lau and Mrs. M. Small for their generous services, including the typing of the manuscript.

I. BABUŠKA and A. K. AZIZ

*College Park  
September 1972*

## CHAPTER 1. PRELIMINARY REMARKS

### 1.1. Introduction.

The development of approximate methods for the numerical solution of partial differential equations has attracted attention of mathematicians, physicists and engineers for a long time. The methods, their mathematical foundation and their implementation have had a considerable impact on theoretical mathematics and on the level of sophistication of computational aids. Roughly speaking we may distinguish two stages in this development, namely the precomputer period and the computer era.

An excellent survey of the state of the art concerning the numerical solution of differential equations, up to the end of the precomputer period may be found in [1] and [2].

The application to partial differential equations is exemplified by the work of Southwell (see [3]) and others.

The advent of the computer served as a stimulus for new ideas in theory and in applications. Engineers, physicists and others have suggested many sophisticated, but often not theoretically founded, methods; nonetheless a great deal of experience has been gained. Mathematics has played a very central and essential role in this development, in particular in the understanding of the theoretical foundation of these methods, their applications and further

very effective and new computer oriented methods have been devised by the numerical analysts. It can be stated without exaggeration that the present day numerical methods are essentially different from those of the precomputer period, and are primarily based on the achievements in the last 15 to 20 years.

The development of numerical methods for partial differential equations was particularly influenced by the innovations brought about by the computer era. One of the typical by-product is the present day's frequent use of the finite element method for the numerical solution of partial differential equations especially as far as the elliptic partial differential equations are concerned.

In recent years considerable attention has been focused on the finite element method primarily in the engineering literature. In the last few years an increasing number of papers on the finite element method has also appeared in the numerical analysis literature.

An extensive bibliography may be found in [4], [10] and [11]. For an excellent account of the interplay of mathematical and engineering ideas in the finite element method the reader is referred to [5]. [6] may be consulted for a mathematical formulation and [12] for a survey of the method.

The attention accorded to the finite element method by the scientific community is further evidenced by numerous national and international conferences held on this topic. In the last two years alone, 15 principal international conferences have been devoted to the finite element method, not counting a large number of small

symposia, workshops and short courses in this field.

## 1.2. Numerical solution of partial differential equations.

In numerically solving a partial differential equation one first expresses approximately the solution by a finite number of parameters. Since, in general the solution is sought in a given class of functions, it is essential that one be able to express any function of this class in terms of a finite number of parameters, with a reasonable accuracy. Further details in this connection may be found in [7] and [8].

Secondly, we need to transform the given differential operator to expressions relating these parameters. For a general abstract approach the reader may consult chapter 14 of [9]. If the differential operator is linear then, in general, the relations among the parameters expressing the solution is also linear i.e., we are led to a linear system of algebraic equations. However, as supported by the general theory (see [7], [8]), in this process one cannot avoid dealing with a large number of parameters of order of at least a hundred or a thousand. Moreover, we need to determine the coefficients of the matrix, the number of which may be of order  $10^4$  or  $10^6$ .

To avoid this complication it is necessary (but not sufficient) to choose the parameters in such a way that the resulting matrix is sparse. If we are seeking an approach which is applicable to the problems encountered in general practical cases, there are other restrictions too.

One of the most successful methods reflecting

these features and other important aspects is the finite element method.

### 1.3. Finite Element Method.

The name finite element method was invented by engineers (see [4]). We will be interested in a slightly more general version which we feel reflects all essential theoretical features of the classical finite element method. We shall call it the general finite element method. For the sake of brevity we will not in the sequel emphasize the word "general" nevertheless we shall always interpret it in this general context.

A cursory analysis of the so called finite element method reveals that there are two principles which appear to be essential from a mathematical point of view.

- 1) The choice of local parameters of the solution.
- 2) The use of various types of variational principles for transforming the given equations to relations among the parameters of the solution.

By the choice of local parameters it is understood that if the approximate solution  $u$  is expressed in terms of the parameters  $\alpha_i$  as  $u = \sum \alpha_i \phi_i$ , then the base functions  $\phi_i$  have only small supports and if the number of the parameters is increased then the support of  $\phi_i$  is decreased. A typical case is the introduction of the parameters which describe the set  $S_h$  of the piecewise linear function (see Fig. 1.3.1).

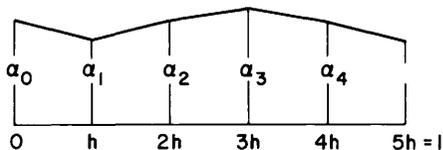


Fig. 1.3.1

It is clear that a change in one parameter, say  $\alpha_3$ , changes the function only in the interval  $\langle 2h, 4h \rangle$ . Obviously, for the set of piecewise linear functions, parameters may be introduced which are not local. There is a question as to whether one can find local parameters for every finite dimensional subspace. To answer this question consider the subspace  $S_h = \sum_0^{1/h} \alpha_i \cos ix$  of all trigonometric polynomials. Indeed here we have quite a different situation. Thus, the assumption concerning the possibility of the introduction of local parameters for the solution means the possibility of a suitable selection of a finite dimensional subspace and a proper choice of the basis.

We remark that the term variational principle, in general, is understood in a broad sense. We interpret this term in a narrow sense. More precisely, we use the variational principle to mean that its application to a linear differential equation, transforms the given equation to a system of linear algebraic equations with the matrix  $M$ , provided the space  $S_h$  of possible approximate

solutions is linear. The elements of  $M$  are given by the bilinear form  $B(\phi_i, \phi_j)$ , where  $\phi_i$  and  $\phi_j$  are basis functions. Moreover, we assume that the bilinear form is such that whenever  $\phi_i$  and  $\phi_j$  have disjoint support then  $B(\phi_i, \phi_j) = 0$ .

This is what we generally understand when we say that the differential equation has been transformed to relations among the parameters of the solution, by the use of the variational principle. Under our assumptions the matrix  $M$  is sparse and the number of entries in the rows of the matrix is relatively very small, in fact is most frequently independent of the size of the matrix.

The introduction of the parameters and the construction of the matrix (variational principle) have very important physical significance in every stage in the application of the finite element method to engineering problems. This feature has greatly contributed to the widespread use of the finite element method. However, from the theoretical point of view, this aspect does not appear to be so significant.

#### 1.4. The sources of the theory of the finite element method.

The theory of the finite element method in all its complexity is based on the fundamental knowledge in different fields. We feel that the heart of the theory of the finite element method lies in the following sources.

- 1) Functional analytic theory of partial differential equations.
- 2) Theory of approximation by piecewise

polynomial functions.

- 3) Computer science.
- 4) Concrete applications in different fields such as mechanics etc.

It is clear that all these sources have contributed greatly to the present day development of the finite element method. It would be impossible (and would not serve a useful purpose) if we tried to trace the different sources with important impact on the method, other than the advent of computers.

#### 1.5. The mathematical foundations of the finite element method.

The main purpose of these notes is to assemble some basic results, and to treat them from a unified point of view.

These notes do not pretend to be complete, nevertheless they aim to develop the fundamentals of the method in such a way that it may be applied to a fairly large number of problems in different fields. For obvious limitations the discussion has been confined to some important preliminaries and basic ideas.

The aim of these notes is the development of a general and complete theory. Our goal is to underline the basic ideas and illustrate them by considering a selective number of examples. The chosen examples are very simple in appearance; however, they exhibit the typical characteristic of the problems encountered in general applications and at the same time, because of the simplicity of the form of the equations, many difficulties of a technical nature are

avoided. For the above reason we have confined our discussion to two dimensional problems only. The setting of the problems is in a general framework and the approach utilized admits in all cases immediate and far reaching generalizations. In some cases a more special treatment could prove to be shorter and easier, but without a general character.

The model problems are selected not merely because of their mathematical interest, but also for their relevance from the point of view of applications. Therefore we have not restricted ourselves to the case of self-adjoint problems. In mechanics in the case of the second order equations it is natural to consider the self-adjoint form, but this is not the case in the diffusion problems e.g., diffusion in a moving medium etc.

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## CHAPTER 2. THE FUNDAMENTAL NOTIONS.

### 2.1. Introduction.

In these notes for the sake of technical simplicity we shall be concerned primarily with problems in two dimensions, but the approach used will be of quite general character. The properties of the domains considered play a fundamental role as far as the behavior of the solutions of partial differential equations are concerned. In the sequel we will be mainly interested in bounded domains, and of course in the entire plane  $R_2$ . First, we shall classify more precisely the type of domains which will be considered in this sequel.

### 2.2 Domains.

Let  $R_2$  denote the two dimensional Euclidean space. For  $x \equiv (x_1, x_2) \in R_2$  we use the notations:

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2} \quad \text{and} \quad |x| = \max(|x_1|, |x_2|) \quad .$$

Further let  $\Omega$  be a given bounded domain, with the boundary  $\Omega^*$  which fulfills the following assumptions. There exists a system of local coordinates  $x_i^{[s]}$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ ,  $s = 1, 2, \dots, \nu$  and open intervals  $I_s \in R_1$  and  $\bar{I}'_s \subset I_s$ , and functions  $\phi_s$  defined on  $I_s$  which induce a mapping

$\chi_s$  of  $I_s$  such that

$$(2.2.1) \quad \chi_s(I_s) = \Omega_s^* = \left\{ (x_1^{[s]}, \phi_s(x_1^{[s]})) \mid x_1^{[s]} \in I_s \right\}$$

and 
$$\bigcup_{s=1}^{\nu} \Omega_s^* = \Omega^*,$$

where

$$(2.2.2) \quad \Omega_s^* = \left\{ (x_1^{[s]}, \phi_s(x_1^{[s]})) \mid x_1^{[s]} \in I_s' \right\}.$$

with  $\Omega$  locally on one side of  $\Omega_s^*$ 's,

We shall say that the domain  $\Omega$  is smooth if all functions  $\phi_s$  have derivatives of all orders. The domain  $\Omega$  is called Lipschitzian if every function  $\phi_s$  satisfies a Lipschitz condition.

We remark that in many of our considerations we do not need that  $\phi_s$  be infinitely differentiable, we merely require that they be sufficiently smooth. Nevertheless in order to avoid technical difficulties we shall always assume that  $\phi_s$  are infinitely differentiable, whenever we use the term smooth domain. The Lipschitzian domain would be the most general domain with which we shall deal. In this setting inevitably we exclude some important domains such as those shown in Fig. 2.2.1.

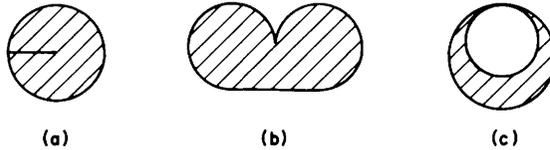


Fig. 2.2.1

or a more general domain.

We shall also deal with some special domains where the functions  $\phi_s$  are merely piecewise smooth.

2.3. Sobolev spaces  $H^\ell(\Omega)$  .

Consider a Lipschitz domain  $\Omega$  and let  $E(\bar{\Omega})$  be the space of all [real] infinitely differentiable functions on  $\Omega$  such that all the derivatives have continuous extensions to  $\Omega^\circ$ . Furthermore, denote by  $\mathcal{D}(\Omega) \subset E(\bar{\Omega})$  the subspace consisting of all functions with compact support in  $\Omega$ . As usual let  $L_2(\Omega)$  be the space of square integrable functions  $u$  on  $\Omega$  with the norm

$$(2.3.1) \quad \|u\|_{L_2(\Omega)}^2 = \int_{\Omega} u^2 \, dx \quad ,$$

where  $dx = dx_1 dx_2$ . The scalar product will be denoted as  $(u,v)_{L_2(\Omega)}$ . Sometimes we shall use the notation

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

Suppose now that  $\ell \geq 1$  is an integer. The Sobolev space  $H^\ell(\Omega)$  (respectively  $H_0^\ell(\Omega)$ ) will be defined as the closure of  $E(\bar{\Omega})$  (respectively  $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ ) in the norm  $\|\cdot\|_{H^\ell(\Omega)}$ , where

$$(2.3.2) \quad \|u\|_{H^\ell(\Omega)}^2 = \sum_{0 \leq |\alpha| \leq \ell} \|D^\alpha u\|_{L_2(\Omega)}^2$$

and

$$(2.3.3) \quad D^\alpha = \frac{\partial^{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}}{\partial x_1^{\alpha_1} \partial x_2^{\alpha_2}}, \quad \alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$$

$$|\alpha| = \sum_i \alpha_i .$$

( $\alpha_i$  are non-negative integers.)

We now define the Sobolev spaces with fractional derivatives which were introduced by Aronszajn [1] and Slobodetskii [2] (see also [3]). For  $0 < \alpha = [\alpha] + \sigma$ ,  $0 < \sigma < 1$  and  $[\alpha] = \text{integral part of } \alpha$ , we define for  $u \in E(\bar{\Omega})$

$$(2.3.4) \quad \|u\|_{H^\alpha(\Omega)}^2 = \|u\|_{H^{[\alpha]}(\Omega)}^2 + \sum_{|K|=[\alpha]} \|D^K u\|_{H^\sigma(\Omega)}^2 ,$$

where

$$(2.3.5) \quad \|u\|_{H^\sigma(\Omega)}^2 = \int_{\Omega} \int_{\Omega} \frac{[u(t) - u(T)]^2}{\|t - T\|^{2+2\sigma}} dt dT ,$$

and  $H^\alpha(\Omega)$  is defined as the closure of  $E(\bar{\Omega})$  in the norm (2.3.4). Similarly  $H_0^\alpha(\Omega)$  will be defined as the closure of  $\mathcal{D}(\Omega)$  in the norm defined by (2.3.4). In this definition of  $H_0^\alpha(\Omega)$  the value  $\alpha = n + \frac{1}{2}$ , where  $n$  is an integer is excluded. For this value of  $\alpha$  the norm must be defined differently.

The spaces  $H^\alpha(\Omega)$  respectively  $H_0^\alpha(\Omega)$  are

obviously Hilbert spaces. We may define the space  $H^\alpha(\Omega)$  and  $H_0^\alpha(\Omega)$  also for negative value of  $\alpha$  as the closure of  $E(\Omega)$  in the norm  $\|\cdot\|_{H^\alpha(\Omega)}$  where for  $\alpha < 0$

$$(2.3.6) \quad \|u\|_{H^\alpha(\Omega)} = \sup_{v \in H^{-\alpha}(\Omega)} \frac{\int_{\Omega} uv dx}{\|v\|_{H^{-\alpha}(\Omega)}},$$

and the norm in  $H_0^\alpha(\Omega)$  is similarly define. Obviously we may identify  $H^\alpha(\Omega)$  and  $H_0^\alpha(\Omega)$ ,  $\alpha < 0$  with the dual spaces to  $H^{-\alpha}(\Omega)$  and  $H_0^{-\alpha}(\Omega)$  respectively.

We define the Sobolev spaces for a bounded domain  $\Omega$ , our definition is also valid for  $\Omega = R_2$ . In this case we may introduce the norm also by means of Fourier transform.

Let  $u \in L_2(R_2)$  be given and

$$(Fu)(\sigma) = \hat{u}(\sigma) = \int_{R_2} e^{i\langle \sigma, x \rangle} u(x) dx,$$

where  $\sigma = (\sigma_1, \sigma_2)$  and  $\langle \sigma, x \rangle = \sigma_1 x_1 + \sigma_2 x_2$ . It is well known that

$$\|Fu\|_{L_2^c(R_2)}^2 = (2\pi)^2 \|u\|_{L_2(R_2)}^2,$$

where  $L_2^c(R_2)$  is the usual space of complex square integrable functions.

Therefore for  $\ell$  an integer

$$(2.3.7) \quad \|u\|_{H^\ell(\Omega)}^2 = (2\pi)^{-2} \int_{\mathbb{R}_2} |(Fu)(\sigma)|^2 \left[ 1 + \mu^2 + \dots + \mu^{2\ell} \right] d\sigma ,$$

with  $\mu^2 = \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2$  .

This norm is obviously equivalent to the norm  $\|u\|_{H_1^\ell(\Omega)}$

given by

$$(2.3.8) \quad \|u\|_{H_1^\ell(\Omega)}^2 = (2\pi)^{-2} \int_{\mathbb{R}_2} |(Fu)(\sigma)|^2 \left[ 1 + \mu^2 \right]^\ell d\sigma .$$

We may define also the space  $H_1^\ell(\mathbb{R}_2)$  for non-integral values of  $\ell$  by formula (2.3.8). By direct computation it is possible to verify that

$$\|u\|_{H^\ell(\mathbb{R}_2)} \approx \|u\|_{H_1^\ell(\mathbb{R}_2)}^{1) , \text{ for all } \ell . \text{ (We note that the}$$

1) Norms  $\|\cdot\|_{H_1}$  and  $\|\cdot\|_{H_2}$  are said to be equivalent if there exist constants  $0 < C_1 < C_2 < \infty$  such that

$$C_1 \|u\|_{H_1} \leq \|u\|_{H_2} \leq C_2 \|u\|_{H_1} .$$

We abbreviate this by writing  $\|\cdot\|_{H_1} \approx \|\cdot\|_{H_2}$  . Throughout these notes  $C$  denotes a generic constant with possibly different values in different contexts.

constants  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  appearing in the definition of the equivalent norms are not uniformly bounded in the case of the value  $\ell$  lies between two integers.)

We shall list some basic well known properties of the Sobolev spaces. For a survey of the recent results in the theory of Sobolev spaces the reader is referred to [4].

Obviously for  $\ell_1 \leq \ell_2$ ,  $H^{\ell_1}(\Omega) \supset H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)$ , with

$$\| \cdot \|_{H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)} \leq C \| \cdot \|_{H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)}, \text{ i.e., the imbedding of } H^{\ell_2}(\Omega) \text{ into } H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)$$

$H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)$  is continuous. Moreover for  $\ell_1 < \ell_2$  and  $\Omega$  bounded this imbedding is also compact, i.e., the unit sphere in  $H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)$  is compact in  $H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)$ .

If  $u \in H^{\ell}(\Omega)$ ,  $\ell > 1$ , then  $u$  is continuous and  $\|u\|_C \leq C \|u\|_{H^{\ell}(\Omega)}$  where  $\|u\|_C = \max_{x \in \Omega} |u(x)|$ <sup>1)</sup>. [In  $n$

dimensional case we need to require that  $\ell > \frac{n}{2}$ ]. The continuity assertion of  $u$  does not hold for  $\ell = 1$ .

The spaces  $H^{\ell}(\Omega)$  as we have defined generate a Hilbert scale, more precisely they are equivalent to a Hilbert scale. For a detailed study of Hilbert scales the reader may consult [5].

---

1) Since the norm in  $H^{\ell}$  is given by an integral in the sense of Lebesgue function  $u$  is continuous after possible change of its values on the set of measure zero.

In what follows we shall describe briefly the main ideas involved in a Hilbert scale which connects the space  $H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)$  with the space  $H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)$ ,  $\ell_2 > \ell_1$ .

For  $v \in H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)$  we define the functional  $\ell \in [H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)]'$  so that for  $w \in H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)$  we have

$$(2.3.8) \quad \ell(w) = (w, v)_{H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)},$$

and may write

$$(2.3.9) \quad \ell(w) = (w, z)_{H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)} = (w, Vv)_{H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)}$$

The operator  $V$  may be considered as an operator in  $H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)$  or in  $H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)$ . In both cases the operator is bounded, self-adjoint, positive, and in  $H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)$ ,  $V$  is a compact operator.

Denoting by  $V^{\frac{1}{2}}$  the positive square root (which exists and it is uniquely determined), it is easy to show that  $V^{\frac{1}{2}}$  induces an isometric isomorphism of the spaces  $H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)$  and  $H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)$ , the operator  $V^{\frac{1}{2}}$  maps  $H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)$  into  $H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)$ , with  $(u, v)_{H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)} = (V^{\frac{1}{2}}u, V^{\frac{1}{2}}v)_{H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)}$  and its inverse  $V^{-\frac{1}{2}}$  maps  $H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)$  onto  $H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)$  with

$$(u, v)_{H^2(\Omega)} = (V^{-\frac{1}{2}}u, V^{-\frac{1}{2}}v)_{H^1(\Omega)} .$$

By denoting  $T = V^{-\frac{1}{2}}$  we may write

$$(2.3.10) \quad V = T^{-2} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^2 P_k ,$$

where  $\lambda_k$  are the eigenvalues and  $P_k$  are the projection operators onto the subspaces of eigenfunctions  $g_k$  of the equation

$$Vu = \lambda_k u .$$

We know that  $\lambda_{k+1} \leq \lambda_k$  and  $0 < \lambda_k \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . Thus we have

$$(2.3.11) \quad T^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^{-2} P_k .$$

We have

$$(2.3.12) \quad \|u\|_{H^2(\Omega)} = \|Tu\|_{H^1(\Omega)} ,$$

and for  $\ell_1 \leq \gamma \leq \ell_2$ , we define

$$(2.3.13) \quad \|u\|_{H_\gamma(\Omega)} = \|T^{\frac{\gamma-\ell_1}{\ell_2-\ell_1}} u\|_{H^1(\Omega)} .$$

Now if

$$(2.3.14) \quad u = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k g_k \quad .$$

then

$$(2.3.15) \quad \|u\|_{H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |a_k|^2 \quad ,$$

$$(2.3.16) \quad \|u\|_{H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^{-2} |a_k|^2 \quad ,$$

$$(2.3.17) \quad \|u\|_{H^{\gamma}(\Omega)}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^{-2} \frac{\lambda_k^{\gamma - \ell_1}}{\lambda_k^{\ell_2 - \ell_1}} |a_k|^2 \quad ,$$

and hence we see that

$$(2.3.18) \quad \|u\|_{H^{\gamma}(\Omega)} \leq \|u\|_{H^{\ell_1}(\Omega)}^{\frac{\ell_2 - \gamma}{\ell_2 - \ell_1}} \cdot \|u\|_{H^{\ell_2}(\Omega)}^{\frac{\gamma - \ell_1}{\ell_2 - \ell_1}}$$

It is possible to show that  $|\cdot|_{H^{\gamma}(\Omega)}$  is equivalent to the norm  $|\cdot|_{H^{\gamma}(\Omega)}$  (see [5]) introduced earlier.

We notice that when connecting any two spaces  $H^{\gamma_1}(\Omega)$  and  $H^{\gamma_2}(\Omega)$ ,  $\ell_1 < \gamma_1 < \gamma_2 < \ell_2$ , by a Hilbert scale we obtain equivalent spaces to those described above.