

Note III.6¹² 22 April 2008

Eigenfunctions and Eigenfunction Expansions

There is a strong analogy between solving some of the named ODEs and finding the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of a matrix.

Hermite's equation

$$y'' - 2xy' + 2\alpha y = 0 \quad (1)$$

can be written

$$Ly = \lambda y \quad (2)$$

where L is the differential operator

$$L = -\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + 2x \quad (3)$$

and $\lambda = 2\alpha$.

Legendre's equation can be written in the same way, with

$$L = -(1-x^2)\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + 2x\frac{d}{dx} \quad (4)$$

with $\lambda = \alpha$.

We can think of the differential operator L as a matrix, albeit an infinite dimensional one, and the function it acts on, y , as a vector.

To make this more precise it is useful to recall some properties of certain finite, say $n \times n$, matrices.

- A **symmetric** matrix S satisfies

$$S^T = S \quad (5)$$

where the superscript T denotes the transpose $[A^T]_{ij} = [A]_{ji}$.

- A **Hermitian** matrix is an $n \times n$ matrix with complex entries satisfying

$$H^\dagger = H \quad (6)$$

where the superscript dagger is the adjoint, the complex conjugate of the transpose

$$[A^\dagger]_{ij} = \overline{[A]_{ji}}. \quad (7)$$

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²Based on notes I got from Chris Ford

Clearly a real symmetric matrix is Hermitian.

Let v be an n -component column vector with complex entries. v is an **eigenvector** of H if

$$Hv = \lambda v \quad (8)$$

for some complex number λ , the **eigenvalue**.

Now, an important theorem is that the eigenvalues of a Hermitian matrix are real. To prove this, let v be an eigenvector of H with eigenvalue λ

$$v^\dagger H v = \lambda v^\dagger v. \quad (9)$$

Since $v^\dagger v$ is real it suffices to prove that $v^\dagger H v$ is real:

$$\overline{v^\dagger H v} = \overline{(v^\dagger H v)^T} \quad (10)$$

since $v^\dagger H v$ is a 1×1 matrix

$$\overline{(v^\dagger H v)^T} = (v^\dagger H v)^\dagger = v^\dagger H^\dagger v = v^\dagger H v \quad (11)$$

if H is Hermitian. Note that $(AB)^\dagger = B^\dagger A^\dagger$.

Another important property is that the eigenvectors of a Hermitian matrix corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal, that is if $Hv_1 = \lambda_1 v_1$ $Hv_2 = \lambda_2 v_2$ with $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ then $v_1^\dagger v_2 = 0$ or, in the inner product notation, $(v_1, v_2) = 0$. To prove this we take the eigenvector equations and multiply them on the left to give

$$\begin{aligned} v_2^\dagger H v_1 &= \lambda_1 v_2^\dagger v_1 \\ v_1^\dagger H v_2 &= \lambda_2 v_1^\dagger v_2 \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Take the complex conjugate of the second

$$v_2^\dagger H v_1 = \lambda_2 v_2^\dagger v_1 \quad (13)$$

using $H^\dagger = H$ and $\bar{\lambda}_2 = \lambda_2$ Subtracting the first gives

$$0 = (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) v_2^\dagger v_1 \quad (14)$$

so that $(v_2, v_1) = 0$ if $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$. If the eigenvalues are degenerate we can choose eigenvectors to be orthogonal using Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization.

Thus, we can choose the n eigenvectors v_i , $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, of an Hermitian matrix H to be **orthonormal**

$$v_i^\dagger v_j = \delta_{ij} \quad (15)$$

or

$$(v_i, v_j) = \delta_{ij} \quad (16)$$

Any n -component vector v can be written as a linear combination of the v_i s

$$v = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_n v_n \quad (17)$$

where c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n are complex numbers. Using the orthonormal property

$$(v_i, v) = c_i \quad (18)$$

Also

$$|v|^2 = (v, v) = |c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 + \dots + |c_n|^2, \quad (19)$$

which can be thought of as an n -dimensional version of Pythagoras or a finite dimensional version of Parseval.

Furthermore, the eigenvector basis can be used to rewrite the matrix

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i v_i v_i^\dagger, \quad (20)$$

since we know by definition

$$Hv = H(c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_n v_n) = c_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + c_n \lambda_n v_n \quad (21)$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i v_i v_i^\dagger v_j = \lambda_j v_j \quad (22)$$

so this will have the same effect on v . The resolution of unity is a similar formula for the identity matrix, it can be written as

$$I = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i v_i^\dagger, \quad (23)$$

since acting on any vector, $v = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + \dots + c_n v_n$, will reproduce v . The inverse of an Hermitian matrix can be written as

$$H^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\lambda_i} v_i v_i^\dagger,$$

since left or right multiplication by H reproduces the identity matrix.

Now, back to differential operators. A differential operator L acts on some vector space of functions. It is normal to require functions to be such that

$$\int dx \bar{u}(x)(Lu)(x) < \infty. \quad (24)$$

and, in practice, it is usual to impose further restrictions on the functions such as

1. square integrability $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \bar{u}(x)u(x) < \infty$.
2. periodicity

3. vanishing at the end points of an interval $[a, b] \subset R$; $u(a) = u(b) = 0$.

In each of these cases an inner product can be defined

1. $(u, v) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \bar{u}(x)v(x)$
2. $(u, v) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} dx \bar{u}(x)u(x) \quad (l = 2\pi)$
3. $(u, v) = \int_a^b dx \bar{u}(x)v(x)$.

Once an inner product is defined, we can look for an analogue of a Hermitian matrix. Suppose

$$(u, Lv) = (Lu, v) \quad (25)$$

for any u, v in the chosen space of functions then L is called **symmetric**. If some further technical requirements are met it is called **self-adjoint** or **Hermitian**. We will be sloppy and call any symmetric operator Hermitian. An example is

$$L = -\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \quad (26)$$

for any of the three conditions above. Here the symmetric condition is just

$$-\int dx \bar{u}(x)v''(x) = -\int dx \bar{u}''(x)v(x). \quad (27)$$

To establish this integrate by parts twice, for example, for the periodic case

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} dx \bar{u}(x)v''(x) = \bar{u}(x)v'(x)|_{-\pi}^{\pi} - \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} dx \bar{u}'(x)v'(x) \quad (28)$$

$\bar{u}(x)v'(x)|_{-\pi}^{\pi}$ is zero since u and v are periodic. Integrating by parts once more gives the result.

$L = -d^2/dx^2$ can be viewed as an Hermitian matrix acting on the space of periodic functions ($l = 2\pi$). The eigenvectors, or eigenfunctions, are the functions

$$v_n(x) = e^{inx} \quad (29)$$

with $n \in \mathbf{Z}$ with corresponding eigenvalues

$$\lambda_n = n^2 \quad (30)$$

These are orthogonal, as expected since L is Hermitian,

$$(v_m, v_n) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} dx \bar{v}_m(x)v_n(x) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} dx e^{-imx}e^{inx} = 0 \quad (31)$$

for $n \neq m$. Can make them orthonormal

$$v_n(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{inx} \quad (32)$$

gives

$$(v_m, v_n) = \delta_{mn}. \quad (33)$$

A periodic function, f , can be thought of as a vector in the space acted on by L . Expanding f in eigenvectors of L

$$f(x) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} c_n v_n(x) \quad (34)$$

just gives Fourier analysis

$$c_m = (v_m, f) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} dx e^{-imx} f(x). \quad (35)$$

Fourier analysis is thus equivalent to expanding in eigenvectors of the Hermitian operator $L = -d^2/dx^2$. We can choose a different Hermitian operator and this leads to alternative expansions: we expect to be able to get Legendre series, Hermite series and so on, instead of the Fourier series.

Legendre Series

Consider Legendre's equation

$$(1 - x^2)y''(x) - 2xy'(x) + \alpha y(x) = 0 \quad (36)$$

This ODE has, regular, singularities at $x = \pm 1$. If α is of the form $\alpha = n(n+1)$ where n is a non-negative integer then the ODE has a polynomial solution, see problem sheet 17, which is well defined at $x = \pm 1$, the other solutions all blow up at $x = 1$ or $x = -1$.

We can rewrite the the ODE as an eigenvalue problem:

$$\begin{aligned} Ly(x) &= \lambda y(x), \\ L &= -(1 - x^2) \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + 2x \frac{d}{dx}. \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

Let us consider in L in the space of functions which are finite throughout $[-1, 1]$; this will include the polynomial solutions, but will exclude the other solutions since they blow up at the end points. The inner product is taken as

$$(u, v) = \int_{-1}^1 dx \bar{u}(x)v(x). \quad (38)$$

It is straightforward to prove that with these boundary conditions L is Hermitian; it helps to write L in the form

$$L = -\frac{d}{dx}(1 - x^2)\frac{d}{dx}. \quad (39)$$

The eigenfunctions are the polynomial solutions of Legendre's equation $P_n(x)$ with $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ with corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_n = n(n+1)$. The first few Legendre polynomials are $P_0(x) = 1$, $P_1(x) = x$ and $P_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}(3x^2 - 1)$.

For n even or odd P_n is even or odd, like the Hermite polynomials. There are various formulae for the Legendre polynomials, for example they can be combined into a generating function

$$\Phi(x, h) = (1 - 2xh + h^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} h^n P_n(x). \quad (40)$$

The polynomials are orthogonal, they can be made orthonormal, but the following convention is standard

$$\int_{-1}^1 dx (P_n(x))^2 = \frac{2}{2n+1}. \quad (41)$$

Let f be a function defined on $[-1, 1]$. Can expand in Legendre polynomials (i.e. in the eigenfunctions of the Hermitian operator L)

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n P_n(x). \quad (42)$$

Much as in Fourier analysis

$$(P_m, f) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (P_m, P_n) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \frac{2\delta_{mn}}{2m+1} = \frac{2c_m}{2m+1}, \quad (43)$$

so that

$$c_m = \left(m + \frac{1}{2}\right) (P_m, f) = \left(m + \frac{1}{2}\right) \int_{-1}^1 dx P_m(x) f(x). \quad (44)$$

Hermite's equation

$$y''(x) - 2xy'(x) + 2\alpha y(x) = 0 \quad (45)$$

can be written as $Ly(x) = \lambda y(x)$, where

$$L = -\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + 2x \frac{d}{dx}, \quad (46)$$

with $\lambda = 2\alpha$. the problem is L is not Hermitian! $(u, Lv) \neq (Lu, v)$ regardless of boundary conditions. However if we change the definition of the inner product

$$(u, v)_{\text{new}} = \int dx e^{-x^2} \bar{u}(x)v(x). \quad (47)$$

the operator is Hermitian and similar results as to the Legendre case can be derived using the new inner product.