

# Study Guide: Approximation of functions with finite elements

Hans Petter Langtangen<sup>1,2</sup>

Center for Biomedical Computing, Simula Research Laboratory<sup>1</sup>

Department of Informatics, University of Oslo<sup>2</sup>

Oct 30, 2013

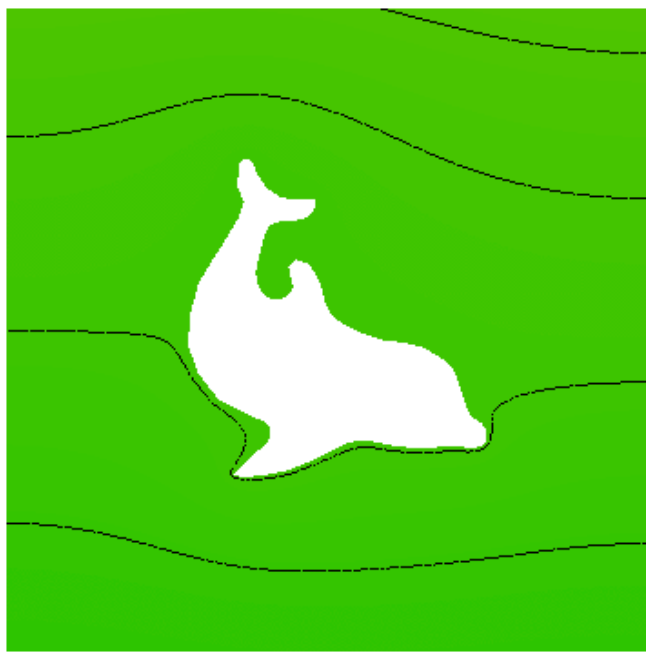
# Why finite elements?

- Can with ease solve PDEs in domains with *complex geometry*
- Can with ease provide higher-order approximations
- Has (in simpler stationary problems) a rigorous mathematical analysis framework (not much considered here)

# Domain for flow around a dolphin



# The flow



# Basic ingredients of the finite element method

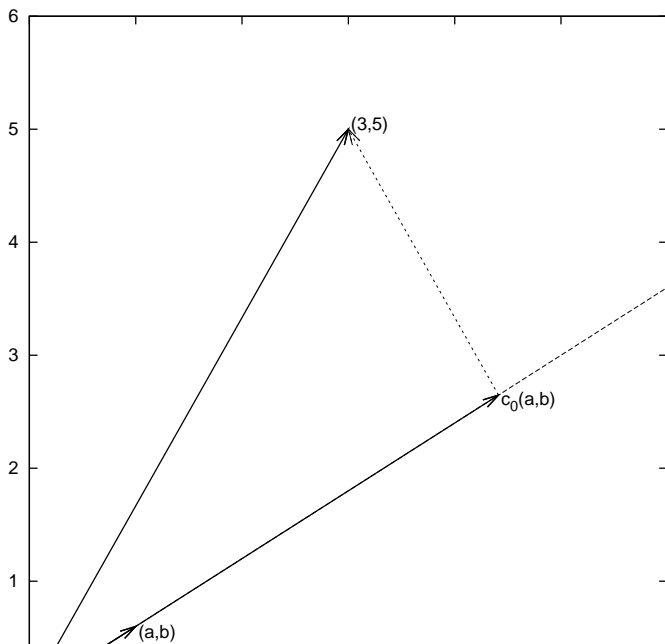
- Transform the PDE problem to a *variational form*
- Define function approximation over *finite elements*
- Use a machinery to derive *linear systems*
- Solve linear systems

# Our learning strategy

- Start with approximation of functions, not PDEs
- Introduce finite element *approximations*
- See later how this is applied to PDEs

Reason: the finite element method has many concepts and a jungle of details. This strategy minimizes the mixing of ideas, concepts, and technical details.

# Approximation in vector spaces



# Approximation set-up

General idea of finding an approximation  $u(x)$  to some given  $f(x)$ :

$$u(x) = \sum_{i=0}^N c_i \psi_i(x) \quad (1)$$

where

- $\psi_i(x)$  are prescribed functions
- $c_i$ ,  $i = 0, \dots, N$  are unknown coefficients to be determined



# How to determine the coefficients?

We shall address three approaches:

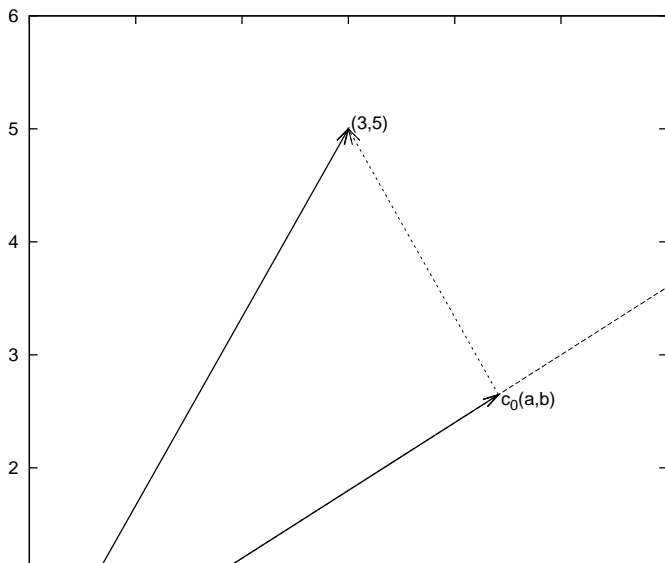
- The least squares method
- The projection (or Galerkin) method
- The interpolation (or collocation) method

Underlying motivation for our notation.

Our mathematical framework for doing this is phrased in a way such that it becomes easy to understand and use the FEniCS software package for finite element computing.

# Approximation of planar vectors; problem

Given a vector  $\mathbf{f} = (3, 5)$ , find an approximation to  $\mathbf{f}$  directed along a given line.



# Approximation of planar vectors; vector space terminology

$$V = \text{span} \{ \psi_0 \} \quad (2)$$

- $\psi_0$  is a basis vector in the space  $V$
- Seek  $\mathbf{u} = c_0 \psi_0 \in V$
- Determine  $c_0$  such that  $\mathbf{u}$  is the "best" approximation to  $\mathbf{f}$
- Visually, "best" is obvious

Define

- the error  $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{f} - \mathbf{u}$
- the (Euclidean) scalar product of two vectors:  $(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$
- the norm of  $\mathbf{e}$ :  $\|\mathbf{e}\| = \sqrt{(\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{e})}$

# The least squares method; principle

- Idea: find  $c_0$  such that  $||\mathbf{e}||$  is minimized
- Actually, we always minimize  $E = ||\mathbf{e}||^2$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial c_0} = 0$$

# The least squares method; calculations

$$E(c_0) = (\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{e}) = (\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}) - 2c_0(\mathbf{f}, \psi_0) + c_0^2(\psi_0, \psi_0) \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial c_0} = -2(\mathbf{f}, \psi_0) + 2c_0(\psi_0, \psi_0) = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$c_0 = \frac{(\mathbf{f}, \psi_0)}{(\psi_0, \psi_0)} \quad (5)$$

$$c_0 = \frac{3a + 5b}{a^2 + b^2} \quad (6)$$

Observation for later: the vanishing derivative (4) can be alternatively written as

$$(\mathbf{e}, \psi_0) = 0 \quad (7)$$

# The projection (or Galerkin) method

- Background: minimizing  $\|\mathbf{e}\|^2$  implies that  $\mathbf{e}$  is orthogonal to *any* vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in the space  $V$  (visually clear, but can easily be computed too)
- Alternative idea: demand  $(\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{v}) = 0, \quad \forall \mathbf{v} \in V$
- Equivalent statement:  $(\mathbf{e}, \psi_0) = 0$  (see notes for why)
- Insert  $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{f} - c_0 \psi_0$  and solve for  $c_0$
- Same equation for  $c_0$  and hence same solution as in the least squares method

# Approximation of general vectors

Given a vector  $\mathbf{f}$ , find an approximation  $\mathbf{u} \in V$ :

$$V = \text{span} \{ \psi_0, \dots, \psi_N \}$$

- We have a set of linearly independent basis vectors  $\psi_0, \dots, \psi_N$
- Any  $\mathbf{u} \in V$  can then be written as  $\mathbf{u} = \sum_{j=0}^N c_j \psi_j$

# The least squares method

Idea: find  $c_0, \dots, c_N$  such that  $E = \|\mathbf{e}\|^2$  is minimized,  $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{f} - \mathbf{u}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} E(c_0, \dots, c_N) &= (\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{e}) = (\mathbf{f} - \sum_j c_j \psi_j, \mathbf{f} - \sum_j c_j \psi_j) \\ &= (\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}) - 2 \sum_{j=0}^N c_j (\mathbf{f}, \psi_j) + \sum_{p=0}^N \sum_{q=0}^N c_p c_q (\psi_p, \psi_q) \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial c_i} = 0, \quad i = 0, \dots, N$$

After some work we end up with a *linear system*

$$\sum_{j=0}^N A_{i,j} c_j = b_i, \quad i = 0, \dots, N \quad (8)$$

$$A_{i,j} = (\psi_i, \psi_j) \quad (9)$$

$$b_i = (\psi_i, \mathbf{f}) \quad (10)$$



# The projection (or Galerkin) method

Can be shown that minimizing  $\|\mathbf{e}\|$  implies that  $\mathbf{e}$  is orthogonal to all  $\mathbf{v} \in V$ :

$$(\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{v}) = 0, \quad \forall \mathbf{v} \in V$$

which implies that  $\mathbf{e}$  must be orthogonal to each basis vector:

$$(\mathbf{e}, \psi_i) = 0, \quad i = 0, \dots, N \quad (11)$$

This orthogonality condition is the principle of the projection (or Galerkin) method. Leads to the same linear system as in the least squares method.

# Approximation of functions

Let  $V$  be a *function space* spanned by a set of *basis functions*  $\psi_0, \dots, \psi_N$ ,

$$V = \text{span} \{ \psi_0, \dots, \psi_N \}$$

Find  $u \in V$  as a linear combination of the basis functions:

$$u = \sum_{j \in I} c_j \psi_j, \quad I = \{0, 1, \dots, N\} \quad (12)$$

# The least squares method

- Extend the ideas from the vector case: minimize the (square) norm of the error.
- What norm?  $(f, g) = \int_{\Omega} f(x)g(x) dx$

$$E = (e, e) = (f - u, f - u) = (f(x) - \sum_{j \in I} c_j \psi_j(x), f(x) - \sum_{j \in I} c_j \psi_j(x)) \quad (13)$$

$$E(c_0, \dots, c_N) = (f, f) - 2 \sum_{j \in I} c_j (f, \psi_j) + \sum_{p \in I} \sum_{q \in I} c_p c_q (\psi_p, \psi_q) \quad (14)$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial c_i} = 0, \quad i \in I$$

After computations *identical to the vector case*, we get a linear system

$$\sum_{j \in I}^N A_{i,j} c_j = b_i, \quad i \in I \quad (15)$$

# The projection (or Galerkin) method

As before, minimizing  $(e, e)$  is equivalent to the projection (or Galerkin) method

$$(e, v) = 0, \quad \forall v \in V \quad (18)$$

which means, as before,

$$(e, \psi_i) = 0, \quad i \in I \quad (19)$$

With the same algebra as in the multi-dimensional vector case, we get the same linear system as arose from the least squares method.

## Example: linear approximation; problem

Problem.

Approximate a parabola  $f(x) = 10(x - 1)^2 - 1$  by a straight line.

$$V = \text{span} \{1, x\}$$

That is,  $\psi_0(x) = 1$ ,  $\psi_1(x) = x$ , and  $N = 1$ . We seek

$$u = c_0\psi_0(x) + c_1\psi_1(x) = c_0 + c_1x$$

## Example: linear approximation; solution

$$A_{0,0} = (\psi_0, \psi_0) = \int_1^2 1 \cdot 1 \, dx = 1 \quad (20)$$

$$A_{0,1} = (\psi_0, \psi_1) = \int_1^2 1 \cdot x \, dx = 3/2 \quad (21)$$

$$A_{1,0} = A_{0,1} = 3/2 \quad (22)$$

$$A_{1,1} = (\psi_1, \psi_1) = \int_1^2 x \cdot x \, dx = 7/3 \quad (23)$$

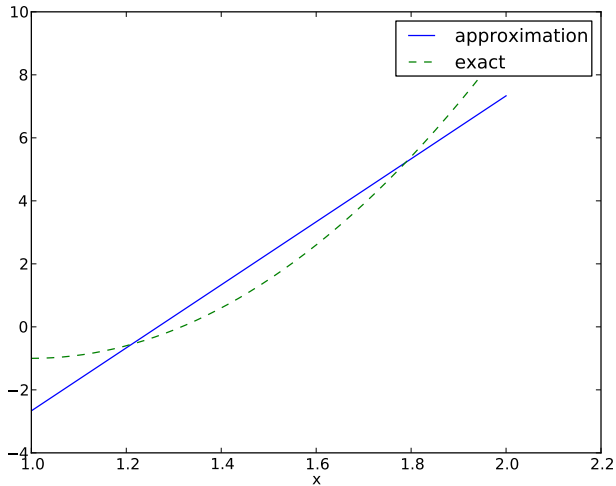
$$b_1 = (f, \psi_0) = \int_1^2 (10(x-1)^2 - 1) \cdot 1 \, dx = 7/3 \quad (24)$$

$$b_2 = (f, \psi_1) = \int_1^2 (10(x-1)^2 - 1) \cdot x \, dx = 13/3 \quad (25)$$

Solution of 2x2 linear system:

$$c_0 = -38/3, \quad c_1 = 10, \quad u(x) = 10x - \frac{38}{3} \quad (26)$$

## Example: linear approximation; plot



# Implementation of the least squares method; ideas

Consider symbolic computation of the linear system, where

- $f(x)$  is given as a sympy expression  $f$  (involving the symbol  $x$ ),
- $\text{psi}$  is a list of  $\{\psi_i\}_{i \in I}$ ,
- $\Omega$  is a 2-tuple/list holding the domain  $\Omega$

Carry out the integrations, solve the linear system, and return

$$u(x) = \sum_j c_j \psi_j(x)$$



# Implementation of the least squares method; symbolic code

```
import sympy as sm

def least_squares(f, psi, Omega):
    N = len(psi) - 1
    A = sm.zeros((N+1, N+1))
    b = sm.zeros((N+1, 1))
    x = sm.Symbol('x')
    for i in range(N+1):
        for j in range(i, N+1):
            A[i,j] = sm.integrate(psi[i]*psi[j],
                                   (x, Omega[0], Omega[1]))
            A[j,i] = A[i,j]
        b[i,0] = sm.integrate(psi[i]*f, (x, Omega[0], Omega[1]))
    c = A.LUsolve(b)
    u = 0
    for i in range(len(psi)):
        u += c[i,0]*psi[i]
    return u, c
```

Observe: symmetric coefficient matrix so we can halve the integrations.

# Implementation of the least squares method; numerical code

- Symbolic integration may be impossible and/or very slow
- Turn to pure numerical computations in those cases
- Supply Python functions  $f(x)$ ,  $\psi(x,i)$ , and a mesh  $x$

```
def least_squares_numerical(f, psi, N, x,
                           integration_method='scipy',
                           orthogonal_basis=False):
    import scipy.integrate
    A = np.zeros((N+1, N+1))
    b = np.zeros(N+1)
    Omega = [x[0], x[-1]]
    dx = x[1] - x[0]

    for i in range(N+1):
        j_limit = i+1 if orthogonal_basis else N+1
        for j in range(i, j_limit):
            print '(%d,%d)' % (i, j)
            if integration_method == 'scipy':
                A_ij = scipy.integrate.quad(
                    lambda x: psi(x,i)*psi(x,j),
                    Omega[0], Omega[1], epsabs=1E-9, epsrel=1E-9)[0]
            elif ...
            A[i,j] = A[j,i] = A_ij
```

# Implementation of the least squares method; plotting

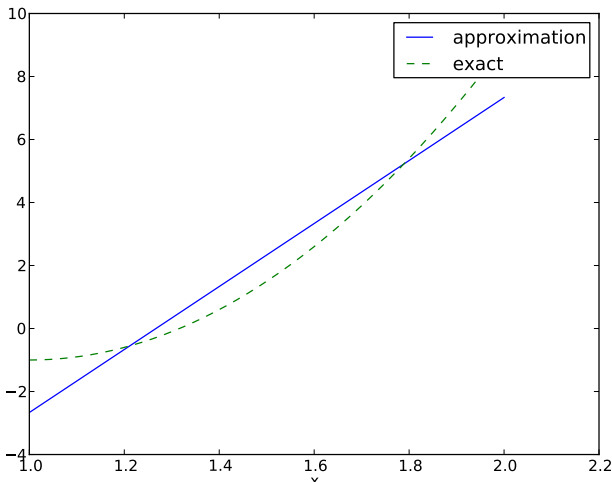
Compare  $f$  and  $u$  visually:

```
def comparison_plot(f, u, Omega, filename='tmp.pdf'):
    x = sm.Symbol('x')
    # Turn f and u to ordinary Python functions
    f = sm.lambdify([x], f, modules="numpy")
    u = sm.lambdify([x], u, modules="numpy")
    resolution = 401 # no of points in plot
    xcoor = linspace(Omega[0], Omega[1], resolution)
    exact = f(xcoor)
    approx = u(xcoor)
    plot(xcoor, approx)
    hold('on')
    plot(xcoor, exact)
    legend(['approximation', 'exact'])
    savefig(filename)
```

All code in module approx1D.py

# Implementation of the least squares method; application

```
>>> from approx1D import *  
>>> x = sm.Symbol('x')  
>>> f = 10*(x-1)**2-1  
>>> u, c = least_squares(f=f, psi=[1, x], Omega=[1, 2])  
>>> comparison_plot(f, u, Omega=[1, 2])
```



# Perfect approximation; parabola approximating parabola

- What if we add  $\psi_2 = x^2$  to the space  $V$ ?
- That is, approximating a parabola by any parabola?
- (Hopefully we get the exact parabola!)

```
>>> from approx1D import *
>>> x = sm.Symbol('x')
>>> f = 10*(x-1)**2-1
>>> u, c = least_squares(f=f, psi=[1, x, x**2], Omega=[1, 2])
>>> print u
10*x**2 - 20*x + 9
>>> print sm.expand(f)
10*x**2 - 20*x + 9
```

## Perfect approximation; the general result

- What if we use  $\psi_i(x) = x^i$  for  $i = 0, \dots, N = 40$ ?
- The output from `least_squares` is  $c_i = 0$  for  $i > 2$

### General result.

If  $f \in V$ , least squares and projection/Galerkin give  $u = f$ .

## Perfect approximation; proof of the general result

If  $f \in V$ ,  $f = \sum_{j \in I} d_j \psi_j$ , for some  $\{d_i\}_{i \in I}$ . Then

$$b_i = (f, \psi_i) = \sum_{j \in I} d_j (\psi_j, \psi_i) = \sum_{j \in I} d_j A_{i,j}$$

The linear system  $\sum_j A_{i,j} c_j = b_i$ ,  $i \in I$ , is then

$$\sum_{j \in I} c_j A_{i,j} = \sum_{j \in I} d_j A_{i,j}, \quad i \in I$$

which implies that  $c_i = d_i$  for  $i \in I$  and  $u$  is identical to  $f$ .

## Finite-precision/numerical computations

The previous computations were symbolic. What if we solve the linear system numerically with standard arrays?

<i>exact</i>	<i>sympy</i>	<i>numpy32</i>	<i>numpy64</i>
9	9.62	5.57	8.98
-20	-23.39	-7.65	-19.93
10	17.74	-4.50	9.96
0	-9.19	4.13	-0.26
0	5.25	2.99	0.72
0	0.18	-1.21	-0.93
0	-2.48	-0.41	0.73
0	1.81	-0.013	-0.36
0	-0.66	0.08	0.11
0	0.12	0.04	-0.02
0	-0.001	-0.02	0.002

- Column 2: `sympy.mpmath.fp.matrix` and `sympy.mpmath.fp.lu_solve`

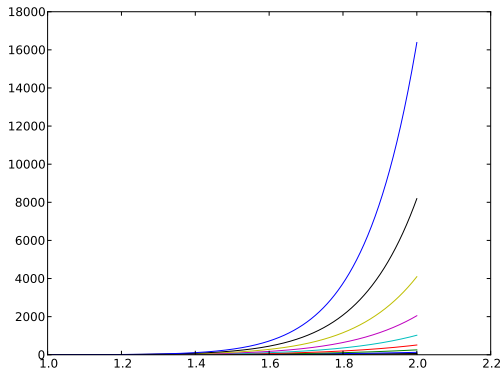


# Ill-conditioning (1)

Observations:

- Significant round-off errors in the numerical computations (!)
- But if we plot the approximations they look good (!)

Problem: The basis functions  $x^i$  become almost linearly dependent for large  $N$ .



## Ill-conditioning (2)

- Almost linearly dependent basis functions give almost singular matrices
- Such matrices are said to be *ill conditioned*, and Gaussian elimination is severely affected by round-off errors
- The basis  $1, x, x^2, x^3, x^4, \dots$  is a bad basis
- Polynomials are fine as basis, but the more orthogonal they are,  $(\psi_i, \psi_j) \approx 0$ , the better

# Fourier series approximation; problem and code

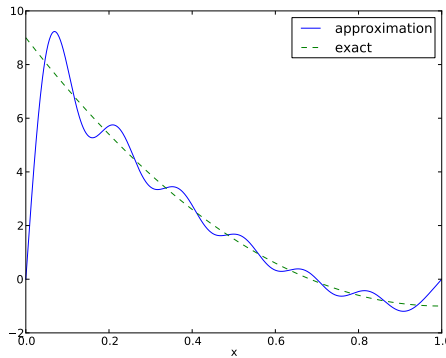
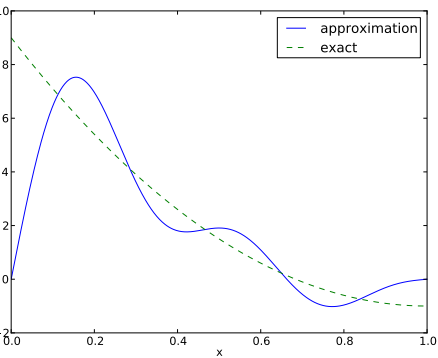
Consider

$$V = \text{span} \{ \sin \pi x, \sin 2\pi x, \dots, \sin(N+1)\pi x \}$$

```
N = 3
from sympy import sin, pi
psi = [sin(pi*(i+1)*x) for i in range(N+1)]
f = 10*(x-1)**2 - 1
Omega = [0, 1]
u, c = least_squares(f, psi, Omega)
comparison_plot(f, u, Omega)
```

# Fourier series approximation; plot

$N = 3$  vs  $N = 11$ :



# Fourier series approximation; improvements

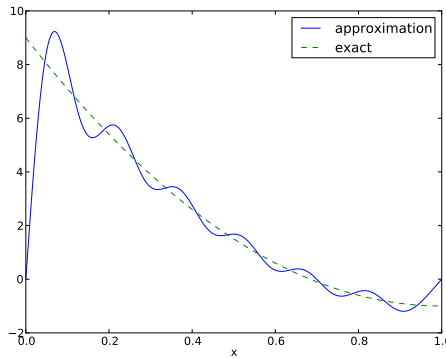
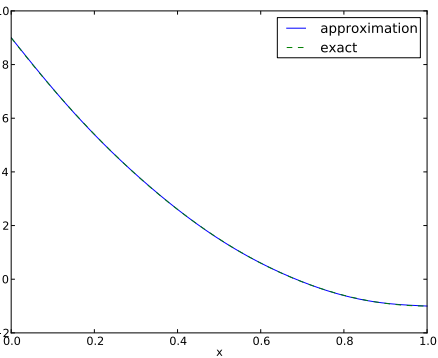
- Considerably improvement by  $N = 11$
- But always discrepancy of  $f(0) - u(0) = 9$  at  $x = 0$ , because all the  $\psi_i(0) = 0$  and hence  $u(0) = 0$
- Possible remedy: add a term that leads to correct boundary values

$$u(x) = f(0)(1 - x) + xf(1) + \sum_{j \in I} c_j \psi_j(x) \quad (27)$$

The extra term ensures  $u(0) = f(0)$  and  $u(1) = f(1)$  and is a strikingly good help to get a good approximation!

# Fourier series approximation; final results

$N = 3$  vs  $N = 11$ :



# Orthogonal basis functions

This choice of sine functions as basis functions is popular because

- the basis functions are orthogonal:  $(\psi_i, \psi_j) = 0$
- implying that  $A_{i,j}$  is a diagonal matrix
- implying that we can solve for  $c_i = 2 \int_0^1 f(x) \sin((i+1)\pi x) dx$

In general for an orthogonal basis,  $A_{i,j}$  is diagonal and we can easily solve for  $c_i$ :

$$c_i = \frac{b_i}{A_{i,i}} = \frac{(f, \psi_i)}{(\psi_i, \psi_i)}$$

# The collocation or interpolation method; ideas and math

Here is another idea for approximating  $f(x)$  by  $u(x) = \sum_j c_j \psi_j$ :

- Force  $u(x_i) = f(x_i)$  at some selected *collocation* points  $\{x_i\}_{i \in I}$
- Then  $u$  interpolates  $f$
- The method is known as *interpolation* or *collocation*

$$u(x_i) = \sum_{j \in I} c_j \psi_j(x_i) = f(x_i) \quad i \in I, N \quad (28)$$

This is a linear system with no need for integration:

$$\sum_{j \in I} A_{i,j} c_j = b_i, \quad i \in I \quad (29)$$

$$A_{i,j} = \psi_j(x_i) \quad (30)$$

$$b_i = f(x_i) \quad (31)$$

No symmetric matrix:  $\psi_j(x_i) \neq \psi_i(x_j)$  in general



# The collocation or interpolation method; implementation

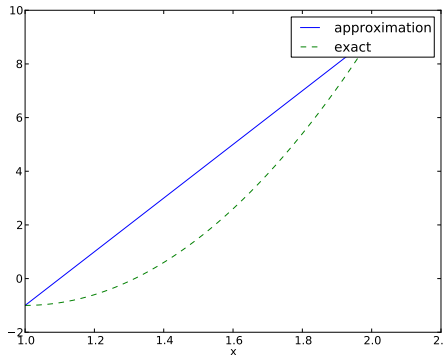
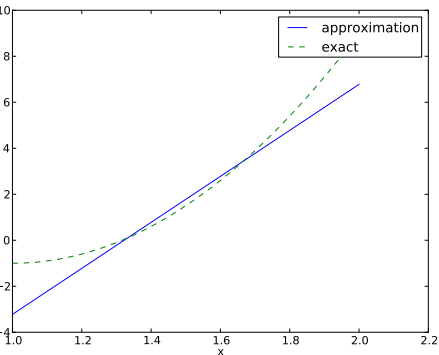
points holds the interpolation/collocation points

```
def interpolation(f, psi, points):
    N = len(psi) - 1
    A = sm.zeros((N+1, N+1))
    b = sm.zeros((N+1, 1))
    x = sm.Symbol('x')
    # Turn psi and f into Python functions
    psi = [sm.lambdify([x], psi[i]) for i in range(N+1)]
    f = sm.lambdify([x], f)
    for i in range(N+1):
        for j in range(N+1):
            A[i,j] = psi[j](points[i])
        b[i,0] = f(points[i])
    c = A.LUsolve(b)
    u = 0
    for i in range(len(psi)):
        u += c[i,0]*psi[i](x)
    return u
```

# The collocation or interpolation method; approximating a parabola by linear functions

- Potential difficulty: how to choose  $x_i$ ?
- The results are sensitive to the points!

$(4/3, 5/3)$  vs  $(1, 2)$ :



# Lagrange polynomials; motivation and ideas

Motivation:

- The interpolation/collocation method avoids integration
- With a diagonal matrix  $A_{i,j} = \psi_j(x_i)$  we can solve the linear system by hand

The *Lagrange interpolating polynomials*  $\psi_j$  have the property that

$$\psi_i(x_j) = \delta_{ij}, \quad \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Hence,  $c_i = f(x_i)$  and

$$u(x) = \sum_{j \in I} f(x_j) \psi_j(x) \tag{32}$$

- Lagrange polynomials and interpolation/collocation look convenient
- Lagrange polynomials are very much used in the finite element method

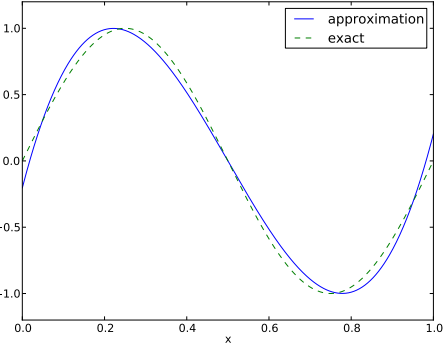
# Lagrange polynomials; formula and code

$$\psi_i(x) = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^N \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j} = \frac{x - x_0}{x_i - x_0} \dots \frac{x - x_{i-1}}{x_i - x_{i-1}} \frac{x - x_{i+1}}{x_i - x_{i+1}} \dots \frac{x - x_N}{x_i - x_N} \quad (33)$$

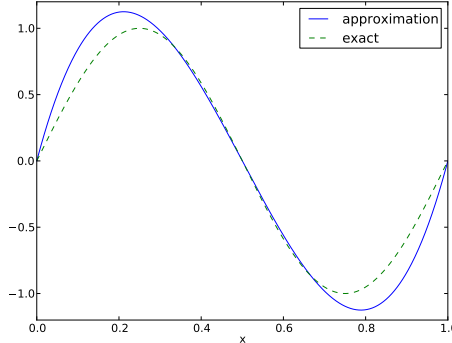
```
def Lagrange_polynomial(x, i, points):  
    p = 1  
    for k in range(len(points)):  
        if k != i:  
            p *= (x - points[k])/(points[i] - points[k])  
    return p
```

# Lagrange polynomials; successful example

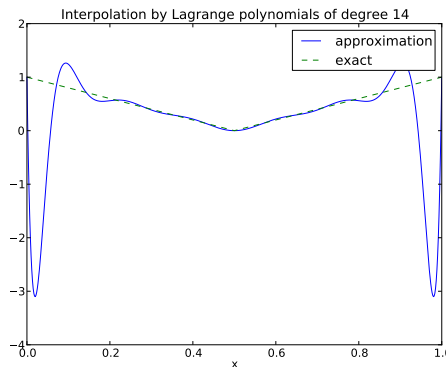
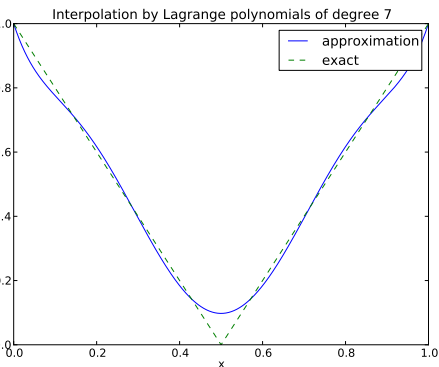
Least squares approximation by Lagrange polynomials of degree 3



Interpolation by Lagrange polynomials of degree 3

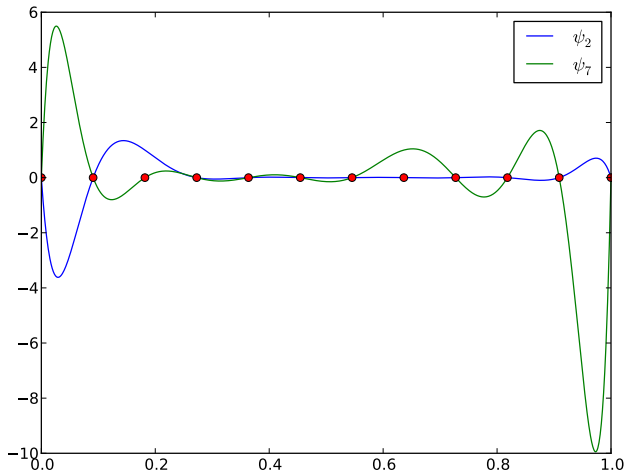


# Lagrange polynomials; a less successful example



# Lagrange polynomials; oscillatory behavior

12 points, degree 11, plot of two of the Lagrange polynomials - note that they are zero at all points except one.



## Lagrange polynomials; remedy for strong oscillations

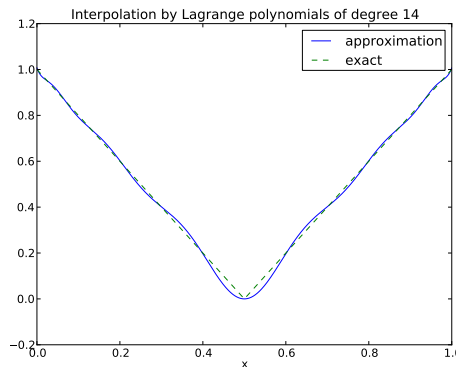
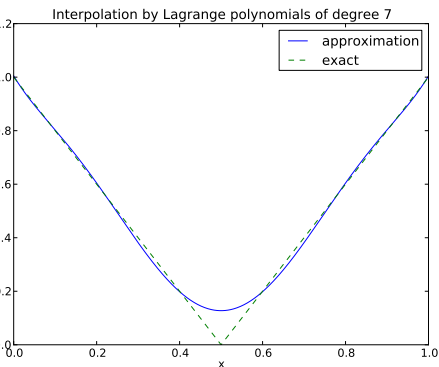
The oscillations can be reduced by a more clever choice of interpolation points, called the *Chebyshev nodes*:

$$x_i = \frac{1}{2}(a+b) + \frac{1}{2}(b-a) \cos\left(\frac{2i+1}{2(N+1)}\pi\right), \quad i = 0 \dots, N \quad (34)$$

on an interval  $[a, b]$ .

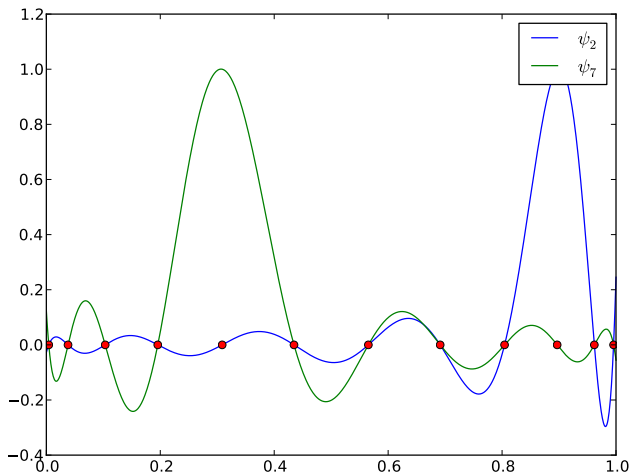


# Lagrange polynomials; recalculation with Chebyshev nodes



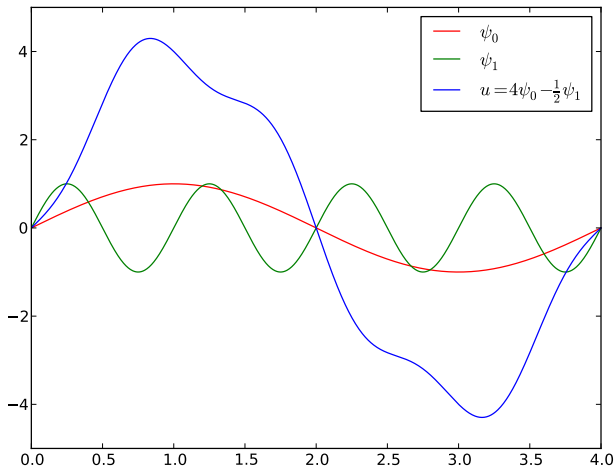
# Lagrange polynomials; less oscillations with Chebyshev nodes

12 points, degree 11, plot of two of the Lagrange polynomials - note that they are zero at all points except one.



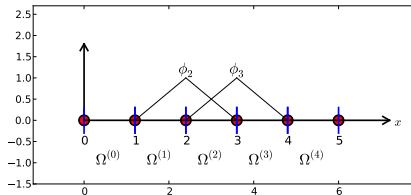
# Finite element basis functions

The basis functions have so far been global:  $\psi_i(x) \neq 0$  almost everywhere

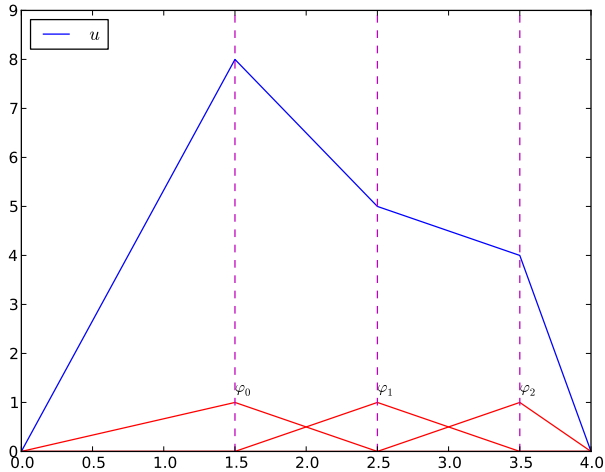


# In the finite element method we use basis functions with local support

- *Local support*:  $\psi_i(x) \neq 0$  for  $x$  in a small subdomain of  $\Omega$
- Typically hat-shaped
- $u(x)$  based on these  $\psi_i$  is a piecewise polynomial defined over many (small) subdomains
- We introduce  $\varphi_i$  as the name of these finite element hat functions (and for now choose  $\psi_i = \varphi_i$ )



The linear combination of hat functions is a piecewise linear function



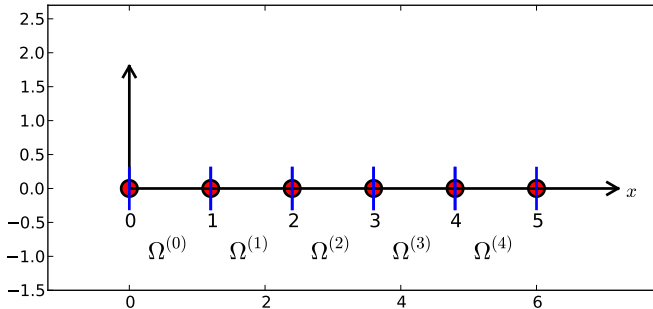
Split  $\Omega$  into non-overlapping subdomains called *elements*:

$$\Omega = \Omega^{(0)} \cup \dots \cup \Omega^{(N_e)} \quad (35)$$

On each element, introduce points called *nodes*:  $x_0, \dots, x_{N_n}$

- The finite element basis functions are named  $\varphi_i(x)$
- $\varphi_i = 1$  at node  $i$  and 0 at all other nodes
- $\varphi_i$  is a Lagrange polynomial on each element
- For nodes at the boundary between two elements,  $\varphi_i$  is made up of a Lagrange polynomial over each element

# Example on elements with two nodes (P1 elements)

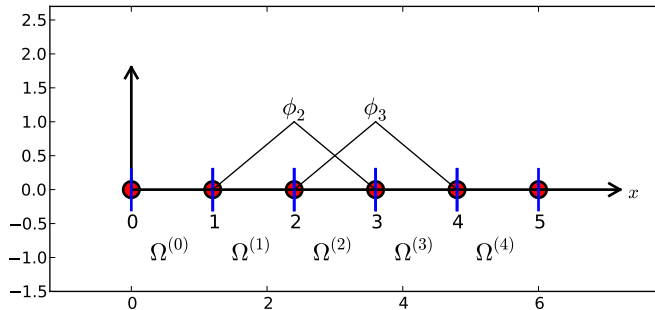


Data structure: `nodes` holds coordinates or nodes, `elements` holds the node numbers in each element

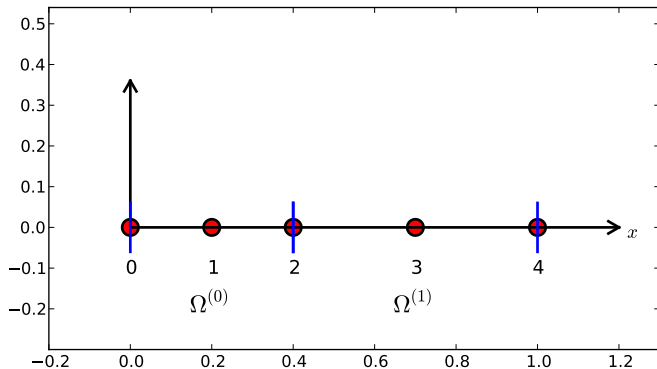
```
nodes = [0, 1.2, 2.4, 3.6, 4.8, 5]  
elements = [[0, 1], [1, 2], [2, 3], [3, 4], [4, 5]]
```



# Illustration of two basis functions on the mesh

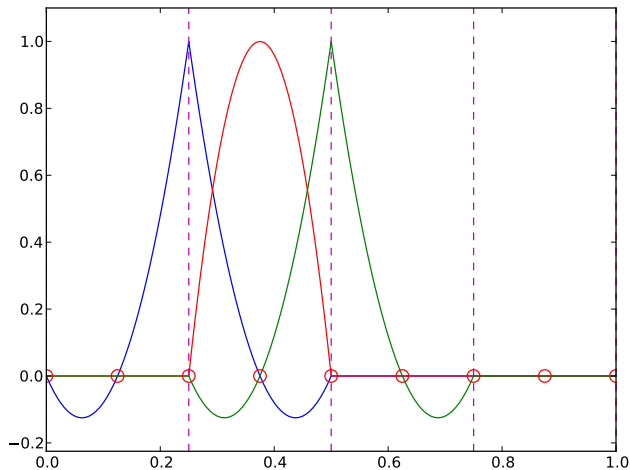


# Example on elements with three nodes (P2 elements)

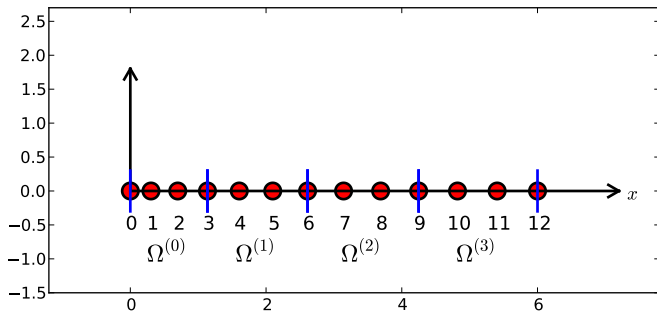


```
nodes = [0, 0.125, 0.25, 0.375, 0.5, 0.625, 0.75, 0.875, 1.0]  
elements = [[0, 1, 2], [2, 3, 4], [4, 5, 6], [6, 7, 8]]
```

# Some corresponding basis functions (P2 elements)

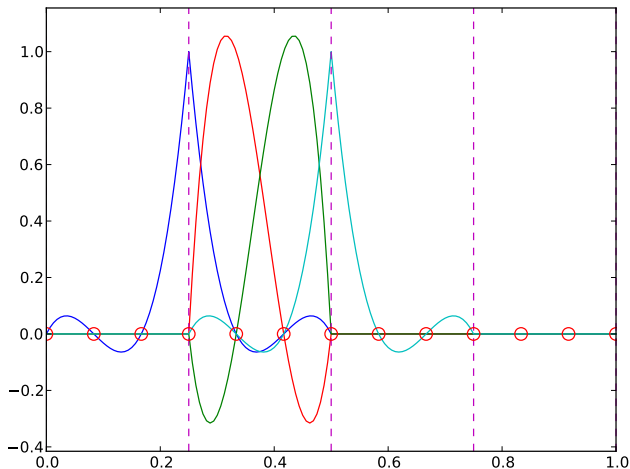


# Examples on elements with four nodes per element (P3 elements)

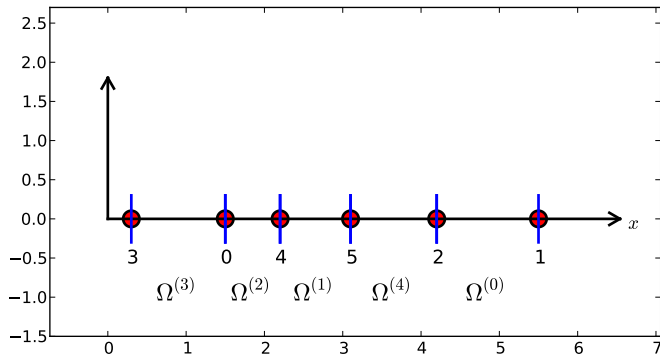


```
d = 3 # d+1 nodes per element
num_elements = 4
num_nodes = num_elements*d + 1
nodes = [i*0.5 for i in range(num_nodes)]
elements = [[i*d+j for j in range(d+1)] for i in range(num_elements)]
```

# Some corresponding basis functions (P3 elements)



The numbering does not need to be regular from left to right



```
nodes = [1.5, 5.5, 4.2, 0.3, 2.2, 3.1]
elements = [[2, 1], [4, 5], [0, 4], [3, 0], [5, 2]]
```

## Interpretation of the coefficients $c_i$

Important property:  $c_i$  is the value of  $u$  at node  $i$ ,  $x_i$ :

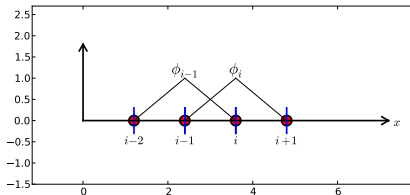
$$u(x_i) = \sum_{j \in I} c_j \varphi_j(x_i) = c_i \varphi_i(x_i) = c_i \quad (36)$$

because  $\varphi_j(x_i) = 0$  if  $i \neq j$

# Properties of the basis functions

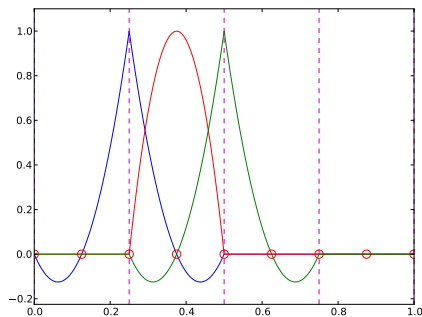
- $\varphi_i(x) \neq 0$  only on those elements that contain global node  $i$
- $\varphi_i(x)\varphi_j(x) \neq 0$  if and only if  $i$  and  $j$  are global node numbers in the same element

Since  $A_{i,j} = \int \varphi_i \varphi_j dx$ , *most of the elements in the coefficient matrix will be zero*



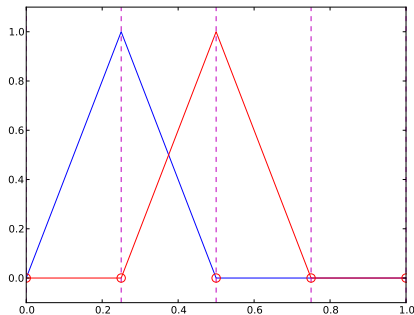


# How to construct quadratic $\varphi_i$ (P2 elements)



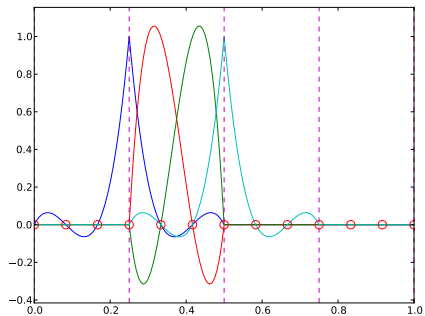
- 1 Associate Lagrange polynomials with the nodes in an element
- 2 When the polynomial is 1 on the element boundary, combine it with the polynomial in the neighboring element

## Example on linear $\varphi_i$ (P1 elements)



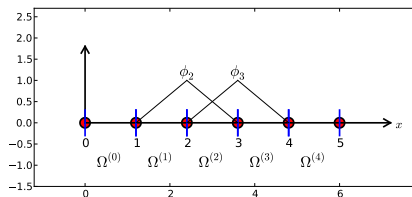
$$\varphi_i(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < x_{i-1} \\ (x - x_{i-1})/h, & x_{i-1} \leq x < x_i \\ 1 - (x - x_i)/h, & x_i \leq x < x_{i+1} \\ 0, & x \geq x_{i+1} \end{cases} \quad (37)$$

# Example on cubic $\varphi_i$ (P3 elements)



## Calculating the linear system for $c_i$

# Computing a specific matrix entry (1)

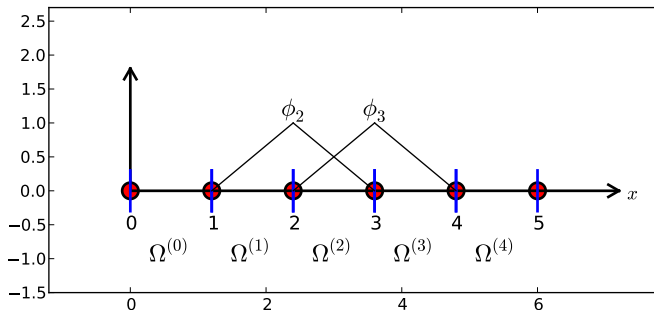


$A_{2,3} = \int_{\Omega} \varphi_2 \varphi_3 dx$ :  $\varphi_2 \varphi_3 \neq 0$  only over element 2. There,

$$\varphi_3(x) = (x - x_2)/h, \quad \varphi_2(x) = 1 - (x - x_2)/h$$

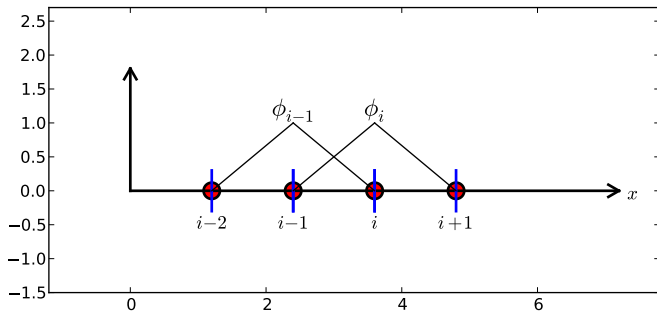
$$A_{2,3} = \int_{\Omega} \varphi_2 \varphi_3 dx = \int_{x_2}^{x_3} \left(1 - \frac{x - x_2}{h}\right) \frac{x - x_2}{h} dx = \frac{h}{6}$$

# Computing a specific matrix entry (2)



$$A_{2,2} = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \left( \frac{x - x_1}{h} \right)^2 dx + \int_{x_2}^{x_3} \left( 1 - \frac{x - x_2}{h} \right)^2 dx = \frac{h}{3}$$

# Calculating a general row in the matrix; figure



$$A_{i,i-1} = \int_{\Omega} \varphi_i \varphi_{i-1} dx = ?$$

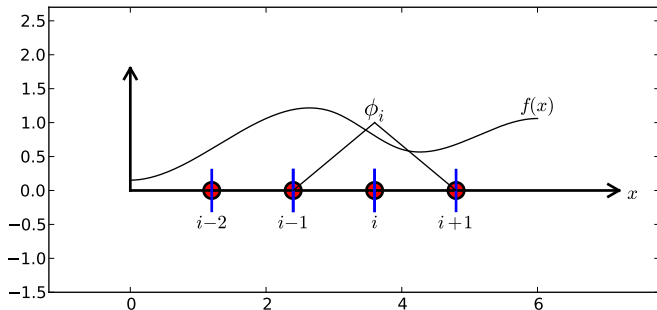
## Calculating a general row in the matrix; details

$$\begin{aligned} A_{i,i-1} &= \int_{\Omega} \varphi_i \varphi_{i-1} dx \\ &= \underbrace{\int_{x_{i-2}}^{x_{i-1}} \varphi_i \varphi_{i-1} dx}_{\varphi_i=0} + \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} \varphi_i \varphi_{i-1} dx + \underbrace{\int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} \varphi_i \varphi_{i-1} dx}_{\varphi_{i-1}=0} \\ &= \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} \underbrace{\left( \frac{x - x_i}{h} \right)}_{\varphi_i(x)} \underbrace{\left( 1 - \frac{x - x_{i-1}}{h} \right)}_{\varphi_{i-1}(x)} dx = \frac{h}{6} \end{aligned}$$

- $A_{i,i+1} = A_{i,i-1}$  due to symmetry
- $A_{i,i} = h/3$  (same calculation as for  $A_{2,2}$ )
- $A_{0,0} = A_{N,N} = h/3$  (only one element)



## Calculation of the right-hand side



$$b_i = \int_{\Omega} \varphi_i(x) f(x) dx = \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} \frac{x - x_{i-1}}{h} f(x) dx + \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} \left(1 - \frac{x - x_i}{h}\right) f(x) dx \quad (38)$$

Need a specific  $f(x)$  to do more...

## Specific example with two elements; linear system and solution

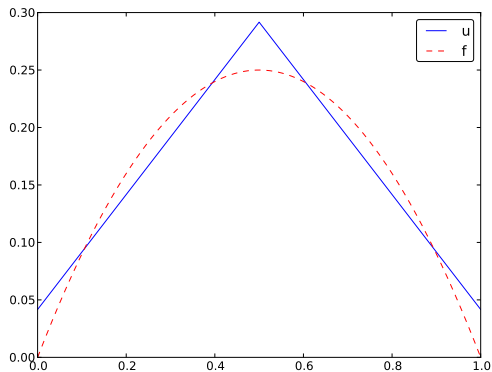
- $f(x) = x(1 - x)$  on  $\Omega = [0, 1]$
- Two equal-sized elements  $[0, 0.5]$  and  $[0.5, 1]$

$$A = \frac{h}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad b = \frac{h^2}{12} \begin{pmatrix} 2 - 3h \\ 12 - 14h \\ 10 - 17h \end{pmatrix}$$

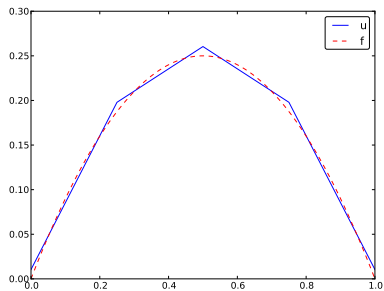
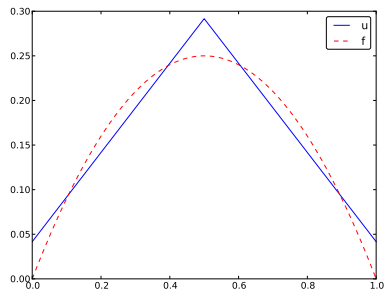
$$c_0 = \frac{h^2}{6}, \quad c_1 = h - \frac{5}{6}h^2, \quad c_2 = 2h - \frac{23}{6}h^2$$

## Specific example with two elements; plot

$$u(x) = c_0\varphi_0(x) + c_1\varphi_1(x) + c_2\varphi_2(x)$$



# Specific example: what about four elements?



# Assembly of elementwise computations

# Split the integrals into elementwise integrals

$$A_{i,j} = \int_{\Omega} \varphi_i \varphi_j dx = \sum_e \int_{\Omega^{(e)}} \varphi_i \varphi_j dx, \quad A_{i,j}^{(e)} = \int_{\Omega^{(e)}} \varphi_i \varphi_j dx \quad (39)$$

Important:

- $A_{i,j}^{(e)} \neq 0$  if and only if  $i$  and  $j$  are nodes in element  $e$   
(otherwise no overlap between the basis functions)
- all the nonzero elements in  $A_{i,j}^{(e)}$  are collected in an *element matrix*

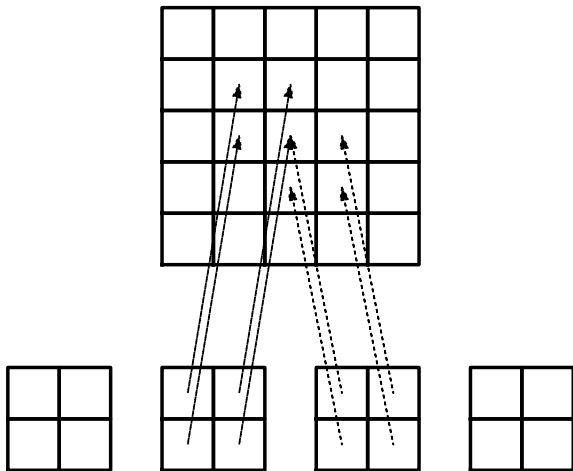
# The element matrix

$$\tilde{A}^{(e)} = \{\tilde{A}_{r,s}^{(e)}\}, \quad \tilde{A}_{r,s}^{(e)} = \int_{\Omega^{(e)}} \varphi_{q(e,r)} \varphi_{q(e,s)} dx, \quad r, s \in I_d = \{0, \dots, d\}$$

- $r, s$  run over *local node numbers* in an element;  $i, j$  run over *global node numbers*
- $i = q(e, r)$ : mapping of local node number  $r$  in element  $e$  to the global node number  $i$  (math equivalent to `i=elements[e][r]`)
- Add  $\tilde{A}_{r,s}^{(e)}$  into the global  $A_{i,j}$  (*assembly*)

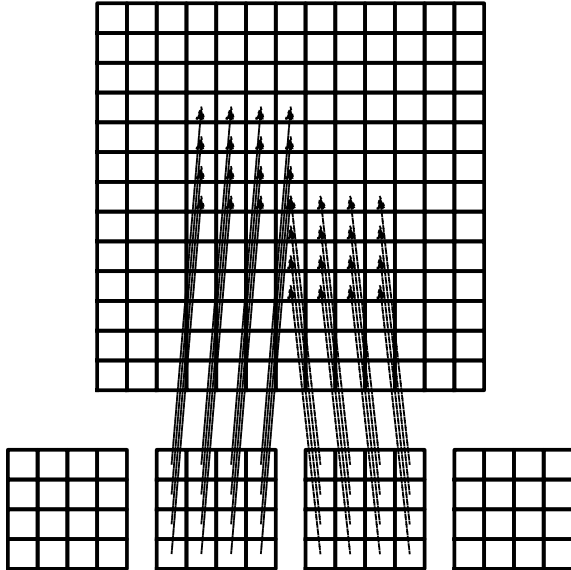
$$A_{q(e,r),q(e,s)} := A_{q(e,r),q(e,s)} + \tilde{A}_{r,s}^{(e)}, \quad r, s \in I_d \quad (40)$$

# Illustration of the matrix assembly: regularly numbered P1 elements

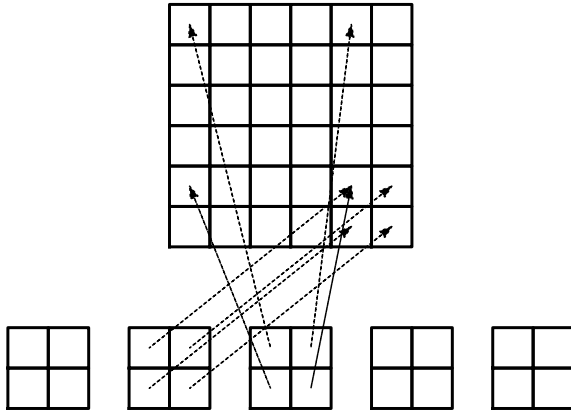




# Illustration of the matrix assembly: regularly numbered P3 elements



# Illustration of the matrix assembly: irregularly numbered P1 elements



Animation

## Assembly of the right-hand side

$$b_i = \int_{\Omega} f(x) \varphi_i(x) dx = \sum_e \int_{\Omega^{(e)}} f(x) \varphi_i(x) dx, \quad b_i^{(e)} = \int_{\Omega^{(e)}} f(x) \varphi_i(x) dx \quad (41)$$

Important:

- $b_i^{(e)} \neq 0$  if and only if global node  $i$  is a node in element  $e$  (otherwise  $\varphi_i = 0$ )
- The  $d + 1$  nonzero  $b_i^{(e)}$  can be collected in an *element vector*  $\tilde{b}_r^{(e)} = \{\tilde{b}_r^{(e)}\}$ ,  $r \in I_d$

Assembly:

$$b_{q(e,r)} := b_{q(e,r)} + \tilde{b}_r^{(e)}, \quad r, s \in I_d \quad (42)$$

# Mapping to a reference element

Instead of computing

$$\tilde{A}_{r,s}^{(e)} = \int_{\Omega^{(e)}} \varphi_{q(e,r)}(x) \varphi_{q(e,s)}(x) dx = \int_{x_L}^{x_R} \varphi_{q(e,r)}(x) \varphi_{q(e,s)}(x) dx$$

we now map  $[x_L, x_R]$  to a standardized reference element domain  $[-1, 1]$  with local coordinate  $X$

$$x = \frac{1}{2}(x_L + x_R) + \frac{1}{2}(x_R - x_L)X \quad (43)$$

or rewritten as

$$x = x_m + \frac{1}{2}hX, \quad x_m = (x_L + x_R)/2 \quad (44)$$

# Integral transformation

Reference element integration: just change integration variable from  $x$  to  $X$ . Introduce local basis function

$$\tilde{\varphi}_r(X) = \varphi_{q(e,r)}(x(X)) \quad (45)$$

$$\tilde{A}_{r,s}^{(e)} = \int_{\Omega^{(e)}} \varphi_{q(e,r)}(x) \varphi_{q(e,s)}(x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 \tilde{\varphi}_r(X) \tilde{\varphi}_s(X) \underbrace{\frac{dx}{dX}}_{\det J = h/2} dX = \int_{-1}^1 \tilde{\varphi}_r \quad (46)$$

$$\tilde{b}_r^{(e)} = \int_{\Omega^{(e)}} f(x) \varphi_{q(e,r)}(x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 f(x(X)) \tilde{\varphi}_r(X) \det J dX \quad (47)$$

# Advantages of the reference element

- Always the same domain for integration:  $[-1, 1]$
- We only need formulas for  $\tilde{\varphi}_r(X)$  over one element (no piecewise polynomial definition)
- $\tilde{\varphi}_r(X)$  is the same for all elements: no dependence on element length and location, which is "factored out" in the mapping and  $\det J$

## Standardized basis functions for P1 elements

$$\tilde{\varphi}_0(X) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - X) \quad (48)$$

$$\tilde{\varphi}_1(X) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + X) \quad (49)$$



## Standardized basis functions for P2 elements

P2 elements:

$$\tilde{\varphi}_0(X) = \frac{1}{2}(X-1)X \quad (50)$$

$$\tilde{\varphi}_1(X) = 1 - X^2 \quad (51)$$

$$\tilde{\varphi}_2(X) = \frac{1}{2}(X+1)X \quad (52)$$

Easy to generalize to arbitrary order!

# Integration over a reference element; element matrix

P1 elements and  $f(x) = x(1 - x)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{A}_{0,0}^{(e)} &= \int_{-1}^1 \tilde{\varphi}_0(X) \tilde{\varphi}_0(X) \frac{h}{2} dX \\ &= \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{2}(1 - X) \frac{1}{2}(1 - X) \frac{h}{2} dX = \frac{h}{8} \int_{-1}^1 (1 - X)^2 dX = \frac{h}{3}\end{aligned}\quad (53)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{A}_{1,0}^{(e)} &= \int_{-1}^1 \tilde{\varphi}_1(X) \tilde{\varphi}_0(X) \frac{h}{2} dX \\ &= \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{2}(1 + X) \frac{1}{2}(1 - X) \frac{h}{2} dX = \frac{h}{8} \int_{-1}^1 (1 - X^2) dX = \frac{h}{6}\end{aligned}\quad (54)$$

$$\tilde{A}_{0,1}^{(e)} = \tilde{A}_{1,0}^{(e)} \quad (55)$$

$$\tilde{A}_{1,1}^{(e)} = \int_{-1}^1 \tilde{\varphi}_1(X) \tilde{\varphi}_1(X) \frac{h}{2} dX$$

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{h}{2} dX = \frac{h}{6}$$

## Integration over a reference element; element vector

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{b}_0^{(e)} &= \int_{-1}^1 f(x(X)) \tilde{\varphi}_0(X) \frac{h}{2} dX \\&= \int_{-1}^1 (x_m + \frac{1}{2}hX)(1 - (x_m + \frac{1}{2}hX)) \frac{1}{2}(1 - X) \frac{h}{2} dX \\&= -\frac{1}{24}h^3 + \frac{1}{6}h^2x_m - \frac{1}{12}h^2 - \frac{1}{2}hx_m^2 + \frac{1}{2}hx_m\end{aligned}\quad (57)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{b}_1^{(e)} &= \int_{-1}^1 f(x(X)) \tilde{\varphi}_1(X) \frac{h}{2} dX \\&= \int_{-1}^1 (x_m + \frac{1}{2}hX)(1 - (x_m + \frac{1}{2}hX)) \frac{1}{2}(1 + X) \frac{h}{2} dX \\&= -\frac{1}{24}h^3 - \frac{1}{6}h^2x_m + \frac{1}{12}h^2 - \frac{1}{2}hx_m^2 + \frac{1}{2}hx_m\end{aligned}\quad (58)$$

$x_m$ : element midpoint.

## Tedious calculations! Let's use symbolic software

```
>>> import sympy as sm
>>> x, x_m, h, X = sm.symbols('x x_m h X')
>>> sm.integrate(h/8*(1-X)**2, (X, -1, 1))
h/3
>>> sm.integrate(h/8*(1+X)*(1-X), (X, -1, 1))
h/6
>>> x = x_m + h/2*X
>>> b_0 = sm.integrate(h/4*x*(1-x)*(1-X), (X, -1, 1))
>>> print b_0
-h**3/24 + h**2*x_m/6 - h**2/12 - h*x_m**2/2 + h*x_m/2
```

Can print out in  $\text{\LaTeX}$  too (convenient for copying into reports):

```
>>> print sm.latex(b_0, mode='plain')
- \frac{1}{24} h^3 + \frac{1}{6} h^2 x_m
- \frac{1}{12} h^2 - \frac{1}{2} h x_m^2
+ \frac{1}{2} h x_m
```

# Implementation

- Coming functions appear in `fe_approx1D.py`
- Functions can operate in symbolic or numeric mode
- The code documents all steps in finite element calculations!

# Compute finite element basis functions in the reference element

Let  $\tilde{\varphi}_r(X)$  be a Lagrange polynomial of degree  $d$ :

```
import sympy as sm
import numpy as np

def phi_r(r, X, d):
    if isinstance(X, sm.Symbol):
        h = sm.Rational(1, d)  # node spacing
        nodes = [2*i*h - 1 for i in range(d+1)]
    else:
        # assume X is numeric: use floats for nodes
        nodes = np.linspace(-1, 1, d+1)
    return Lagrange_polynomial(X, r, nodes)

def Lagrange_polynomial(x, i, points):
    p = 1
    for k in range(len(points)):
        if k != i:
            p *= (x - points[k]) / (points[i] - points[k])
    return p

def basis(d=1):
    """Return the complete basis."""
    X = sm.Symbol('X')
    phi = [phi_r(r, X, d) for r in range(d+1)]
    return phi
```

# Compute the element matrix

```
def element_matrix(phi, Omega_e, symbolic=True):
    n = len(phi)
    A_e = sm.zeros((n, n))
    X = sm.Symbol('X')
    if symbolic:
        h = sm.Symbol('h')
    else:
        h = Omega_e[1] - Omega_e[0]
    detJ = h/2 # dx/dX
    for r in range(n):
        for s in range(r, n):
            A_e[r,s] = sm.integrate(phi[r]*phi[s]*detJ, (X, -1, 1))
            A_e[s,r] = A_e[r,s]
    return A_e
```

## Example on symbolic vs numeric element matrix

```
>>> from fe_approx1D import *
>>> phi = basis(d=1)
>>> phi
[1/2 - X/2, 1/2 + X/2]
>>> element_matrix(phi, Omega_e=[0.1, 0.2], symbolic=True)
[h/3, h/6]
[h/6, h/3]
>>> element_matrix(phi, Omega_e=[0.1, 0.2], symbolic=False)
[0.03333333333333333, 0.01666666666666667]
[0.01666666666666667, 0.03333333333333333]
```



# Compute the element vector

```
def element_vector(f, phi, Omega_e, symbolic=True):
    n = len(phi)
    b_e = sm.zeros((n, 1))
    # Make f a function of X
    X = sm.Symbol('X')
    if symbolic:
        h = sm.Symbol('h')
    else:
        h = Omega_e[1] - Omega_e[0]
    x = (Omega_e[0] + Omega_e[1])/2 + h/2*X # mapping
    f = f.subs('x', x) # substitute mapping formula for x
    detJ = h/2 # dx/dX
    for r in range(n):
        b_e[r] = sm.integrate(f*phi[r]*detJ, (X, -1, 1))
    return b_e
```

Note `f.subs('x', x)`: replace `x` by `x(X)` such that `f` contains `X`

# Fallback on numerical integration if symbolic integration fails

- Element matrix: only polynomials and sympy always succeeds
- Element vector:  $\int f \tilde{\phi} dx$  can fail (sympy then returns an Integral object instead of a number)

```
def element_vector(f, phi, Omega_e, symbolic=True):
    ...
    I = sm.integrate(f*phi[r]*detJ, (X, -1, 1)) # try...
    if isinstance(I, sm.Integral):
        h = Omega_e[1] - Omega_e[0] # Ensure h is numerical
        detJ = h/2
        integrand = sm.lambdify([X], f*phi[r]*detJ)
        I = sm.mpmath.quad(integrand, [-1, 1])
    b_e[r] = I
    ...
```

# Linear system assembly and solution

```
def assemble(nodes, elements, phi, f, symbolic=True):
    N_n, N_e = len(nodes), len(elements)
    zeros = sm.zeros if symbolic else np.zeros
    A = zeros((N_n, N_n))
    b = zeros((N_n, 1))
    for e in range(N_e):
        Omega_e = [nodes[elements[e][0]], nodes[elements[e][-1]]]

        A_e = element_matrix(phi, Omega_e, symbolic)
        b_e = element_vector(f, phi, Omega_e, symbolic)

        for r in range(len(elements[e])):
            for s in range(len(elements[e])):
                A[elements[e][r], elements[e][s]] += A_e[r, s]
            b[elements[e][r]] += b_e[r]
    return A, b
```

# Linear system solution

```
if symbolic:
    c = A.LUsolve(b)           # sympy arrays, symbolic Gaussian el
else:
    c = np.linalg.solve(A, b)  # numpy arrays, numerical solve
```

Note: the symbolic computation of A and b and the symbolic solution can be very tedious.

## Example on computing symbolic approximations

```
>>> h, x = sm.symbols('h x')
>>> nodes = [0, h, 2*h]
>>> elements = [[0, 1], [1, 2]]
>>> phi = basis(d=1)
>>> f = x*(1-x)
>>> A, b = assemble(nodes, elements, phi, f, symbolic=True)
>>> A
[h/3,   h/6,   0]
[h/6,  2*h/3, h/6]
[ 0,   h/6, h/3]
>>> b
[      h**2/6 - h**3/12]
[      h**2 - 7*h**3/6]
[5*h**2/6 - 17*h**3/12]
>>> c = A.LUsolve(b)
>>> c
[
                                h**2/6]
[12*(7*h**2/12 - 35*h**3/72)/(7*h)]
[ 7*(4*h**2/7 - 23*h**3/21)/(2*h)]
```

# Example on computing numerical approximations

```
>>> nodes = [0, 0.5, 1]
>>> elements = [[0, 1], [1, 2]]
>>> phi = basis(d=1)
>>> x = sm.Symbol('x')
>>> f = x*(1-x)
>>> A, b = assemble(nodes, elements, phi, f, symbolic=False)
>>> A
[ 0.1666666666666667, 0.0833333333333333, 0]
[0.0833333333333333, 0.3333333333333333, 0.0833333333333333]
[ 0, 0.0833333333333333, 0.1666666666666667]
>>> b
[ 0.03125]
[0.1041666666666667]
[ 0.03125]
>>> c = A.LUsolve(b)
>>> c
[0.0416666666666666]
[ 0.291666666666667]
[0.0416666666666666]
```

# The structure of the coefficient matrix

```
>>> d=1; N_e=8; Omega=[0,1]  # 8 linear elements on [0,1]
>>> phi = basis(d)
>>> f = x*(1-x)
>>> nodes, elements = mesh_symbolic(N_e, d, Omega)
>>> A, b = assemble(nodes, elements, phi, f, symbolic=True)
>>> A
[h/3,    h/6,    0,    0,    0,    0,    0,    0,    0]
[h/6, 2*h/3,    h/6,    0,    0,    0,    0,    0,    0]
[ 0,    h/6, 2*h/3,    h/6,    0,    0,    0,    0,    0]
[ 0,    0,    h/6, 2*h/3,    h/6,    0,    0,    0,    0]
[ 0,    0,    0,    h/6, 2*h/3,    h/6,    0,    0,    0]
[ 0,    0,    0,    0,    h/6, 2*h/3,    h/6,    0,    0]
[ 0,    0,    0,    0,    0,    h/6, 2*h/3,    h/6,    0]
[ 0,    0,    0,    0,    0,    0,    h/6, 2*h/3, h/6]
[ 0,    0,    0,    0,    0,    0,    0,    h/6, h/3]
```

Note: do this by hand to understand what is going on!

## General result: the coefficient matrix is sparse

- Sparse = most of the entries are zeros
- Below: P1 elements

$$A = \frac{h}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 & \ddots & & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 1 & 4 & 1 & \ddots & & & & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & & \ddots & \ddots & 0 & & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & 0 & 1 & 4 & 1 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & & \ddots & 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (59)$$

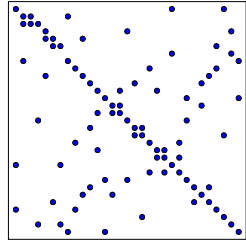
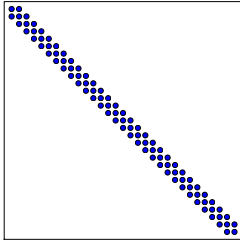


## Exemplifying the sparsity for P2 elements

$$A = \frac{h}{30} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 16 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 8 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 16 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 & 8 & 2 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 16 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 & 8 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 16 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \quad (60)$$

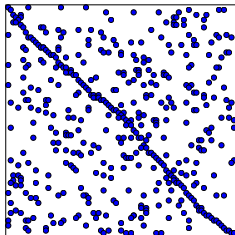
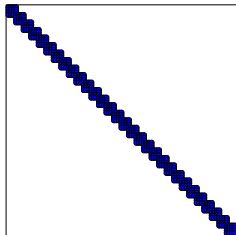
# Matrix sparsity pattern for regular/random numbering of P1 elements

- Left: number nodes and elements from left to right
- Right: number nodes and elements arbitrarily



# Matrix sparsity pattern for regular/random numbering of P3 elements

- Left: number nodes and elements from left to right
- Right: number nodes and elements arbitrarily



# Sparse matrix storage and solution

The minimum storage requirements for the coefficient matrix  $A_{i,j}$ :

- P1 elements: only 3 nonzero entries per row
- P2 elements: only 5 nonzero entries per row
- P3 elements: only 7 nonzero entries per row
- It is important to utilize sparse storage and sparse solvers
- In Python: `scipy.sparse` package

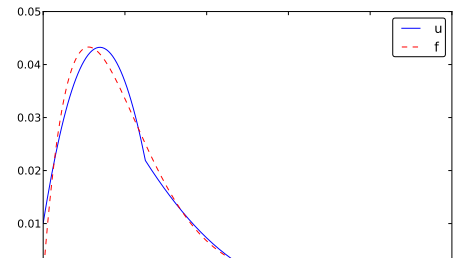
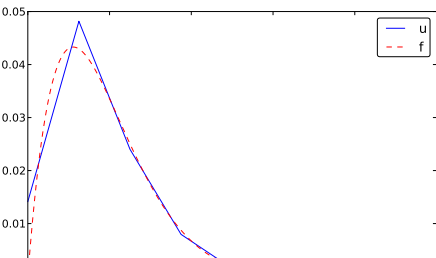
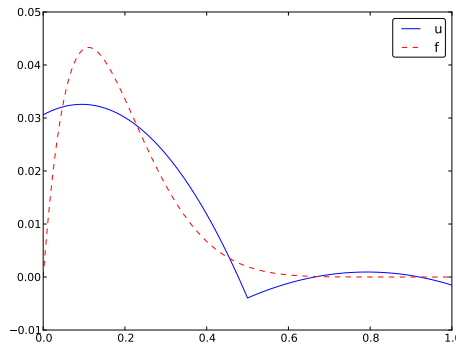
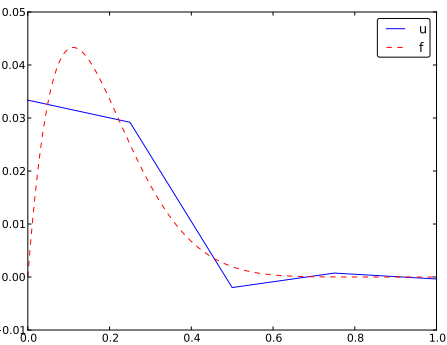
# Approximate $f \sim x^9$ by various elements; code

Compute a mesh with  $N_e$  elements, basis functions of degree  $d$ , and approximate a given symbolic expression  $f(x)$  by a finite element expansion  $u(x) = \sum_j c_j \varphi_j(x)$ :

```
import sympy as sm
from fe_approx1D import approximate
x = sm.Symbol('x')

approximate(f=x*(1-x)**8, symbolic=False, d=1, N_e=4)
approximate(f=x*(1-x)**8, symbolic=False, d=2, N_e=2)
approximate(f=x*(1-x)**8, symbolic=False, d=1, N_e=8)
approximate(f=x*(1-x)**8, symbolic=False, d=2, N_e=4)
```

# Approximate $f \sim x^9$ by various elements; plot



# Comparison of finite element and finite difference approximation

- Finite difference approximation of a function  $f(x)$ : simply choose  $u_i = f(x_i)$  (interpolation)
- Galerkin/projection and least squares method: must derive and solve a linear system
- What is *really* the difference in  $u$ ?

# Interpolation/collocation with finite elements

Let  $\{x_i\}_{i \in I}$  be the nodes in the mesh. Collocation means

$$u(x_i) = f(x_i), \quad i \in I, \quad (61)$$

which translates to

$$\sum_{j \in I} c_j \varphi_j(x_i) = f(x_i),$$

but  $\varphi_j(x_i) = 0$  if  $i \neq j$  so the sum collapses to one term  $c_i \varphi_i(x_i) = c_i$ , and we have the result

$$c_i = f(x_i) \quad (62)$$

Same result as the standard finite difference approach, but finite elements define  $u$  also *between* the  $x_i$  points



# Galerkin/project and least squares vs collocation/interpolation or finite differences

- Scope: work with P1 elements
- Use projection/Galerkin or least squares (equivalent)
- Interpret the resulting linear system as finite difference equations

The P1 finite element machinery results in a linear system where equation no  $i$  is

$$\frac{h}{6}(u_{i-1} + 4u_i + u_{i+1}) = (f, \varphi_i) \quad (63)$$

Note:

- We have used  $u_i$  for  $c_i$  to make notation similar to finite differences
- The finite difference counterpart is just  $u_i = f_i$

## Expressing the left-hand side in finite difference operator notation

Rewrite the left-hand side of finite element equation no  $i$ :

$$h(u_i + \frac{1}{6}(u_{i-1} - 2u_i + u_{i+1})) = [h(u + \frac{h^2}{6}D_x D_x u)]_i \quad (64)$$

This is the standard finite difference approximation of

$$h(u + \frac{h^2}{6}u'')$$

## Treating the right-hand side; Trapezoidal rule

$$(f, \varphi_i) = \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} f(x) \frac{1}{h} (x - x_{i-1}) dx + \int_{x_i}^{x_{i+1}} f(x) \frac{1}{h} (1 - (x - x_i)) dx$$

Cannot do much unless we specialize  $f$  or use *numerical integration*.

Trapezoidal rule using the nodes:

$$(f, \varphi_i) = \int_{\Omega} f \varphi_i dx \approx h \frac{1}{2} (f(x_0) \varphi_i(x_0) + f(x_N) \varphi_i(x_N)) + h \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} f(x_j) \varphi_i(x_j)$$

$\varphi_i(x_j) = \delta_{ij}$ , so this formula collapses to one term:

$$(f, \varphi_i) \approx h f(x_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, N-1. \quad (65)$$

Same result as in collocation (interpolation) and the finite difference method!

## Treating the right-hand side; Simpson's rule

$$\int_{\Omega} g(x) dx \approx \frac{h}{6} \left( g(x_0) + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} g(x_j) + 4 \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} g(x_{j+\frac{1}{2}}) + f(x_{2N}) \right),$$

Our case:  $g = f\varphi_i$ . The sums collapse because  $\varphi_i = 0$  at most of the points.

$$(f, \varphi_i) \approx \frac{h}{3} (f_{i-\frac{1}{2}} + f_i + f_{i+\frac{1}{2}}) \quad (66)$$

Conclusions:

- While the finite difference method just samples  $f$  at  $x_i$ , the finite element method applies an average (smoothing) of  $f$  around  $x_i$
- On the left-hand side we have a term  $\sim hu''$ , and  $u''$  also contribute to smoothing
- There is some inherent smoothing in the finite element method

# Finite element approximation vs finite differences

With Trapezoidal integration of  $(f, \varphi_i)$ , the finite element method essentially solve

$$u + \frac{h^2}{6} u'' = f, \quad u'(0) = u'(L) = 0, \quad (67)$$

by the finite difference method

$$\left[ u + \frac{h^2}{6} D_x D_x u = f \right]_i \quad (68)$$

With Simpson integration of  $(f, \varphi_i)$  we essentially solve

$$\left[ u + \frac{h^2}{6} D_x D_x u = \bar{f} \right]_i, \quad (69)$$

where

$$\bar{f}_i = \frac{1}{3} (f_{i-1/2} + f_i + f_{i+1/2})$$

Note: as  $h \rightarrow 0$ ,  $hu'' \rightarrow 0$  and  $\bar{f}_i \rightarrow f_i$ .

# Making finite elements behave as finite differences

- Can we adjust the finite element method so that we do not get the extra  $hu''$  smoothing term and averaging of  $f$ ?
- This is sometimes important in time-dependent problems to incorporate good properties of finite differences into finite elements

Result:

- Compute all integrals by the Trapezoidal method and P1 elements
- Specifically, the coefficient matrix becomes diagonal ("lumped") - no linear system (!)
- Loss of accuracy? The Trapezoidal rule has error  $\mathcal{O}(h^2)$ , the same as the approximation error in P1 elements

# Limitations of the nodes and element concepts

So far,

- *Nodes*: points for defining  $\varphi_i$  and computing  $u$  values
- *Elements*: subdomain (containing a few nodes)
- This is a common notion of nodes and elements

One problem:

- Our algorithms need nodes at the element boundaries
- This is often not desirable, so we need to throw the `nodes` and `elements` arrays away and find a more generalized element concept

# A generalized element concept

- We introduce *cell* for the subdomain that we up to now called element
- A cell has *vertices* (interval end points)
- *Nodes* are, almost as before, points where we want to compute unknown functions
- *Degrees of freedom* is what the  $c_j$  represent (usually function values at nodes)



# The concept of a finite element

- 1 a *reference cell* in a local reference coordinate system
- 2 a set of *basis functions*  $\tilde{\varphi}_r$  defined on the cell
- 3 a set of *degrees of freedom* (e.g., function values) that uniquely determine the basis functions such that  $\tilde{\varphi}_r = 1$  for degree of freedom number  $r$  and  $\tilde{\varphi}_r = 0$  for all other degrees of freedom
- 4 a mapping between local and global degree of freedom numbers (*dof map*)
- 5 a geometric *mapping* of the reference cell onto to cell in the physical domain:  $[-1, 1] \Rightarrow [x_L, x_R]$

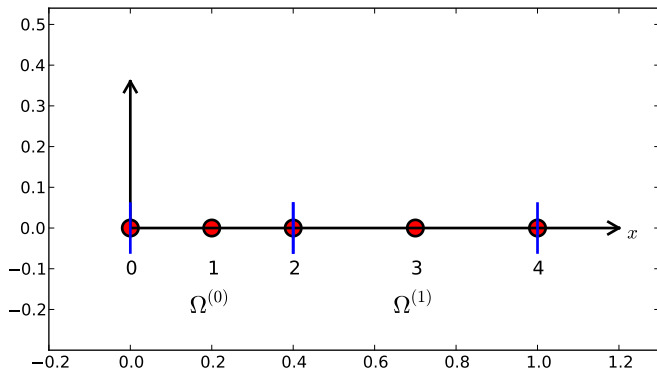
## Implementation; basic data structures

- Cell vertex coordinates: `vertices` (equals nodes for P1 elements)
- Element vertices: `cell[e][r]` holds global vertex number of local vertex no `r` in element `e` (same as `elements` for P1 elements)
- `dof_map[e,r]` maps local dof `r` in element `e` to global dof number (same as `elements` for P $d$  elements)

The assembly process now applies `dof_map`:

```
A[dof_map[e][r], dof_map[e][s]] += A_e[r,s]  
b[dof_map[e][r]] += b_e[r]
```

# Implementation; example with P2 elements



```
vertices = [0, 0.4, 1]
cells = [[0, 1], [1, 2]]
dof_map = [[0, 1, 2], [2, 3, 4]]
```

## Implementation; example with P0 elements

Example: Same mesh, but  $u$  is piecewise constant in each cell (P0 element). Same vertices and cells, but

```
dof_map = [[0], [1]]
```

May think of one node in the middle of each element.

We will hereafter work with `cells`, `vertices`, and `dof_map`.

# Example on doing the algorithmic steps

```
# Use modified fe_approx1D module
from fe_approx1D_numint import *

x = sm.Symbol('x')
f = x*(1 - x)

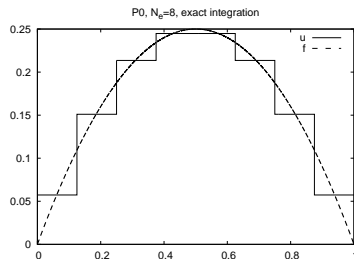
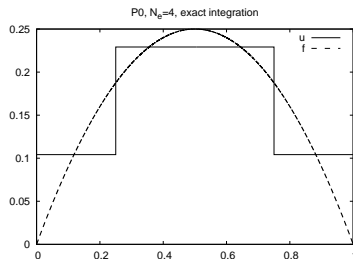
N_e = 10
# Create mesh with P3 (cubic) elements
vertices, cells, dof_map = mesh_uniform(N_e, d=3, Omega=[0,1])

# Create basis functions on the mesh
phi = [basis(len(dof_map[e])-1) for e in range(N_e)]

# Create linear system and solve it
A, b = assemble(vertices, cells, dof_map, phi, f)
c = np.linalg.solve(A, b)

# Make very fine mesh and sample u(x) on this mesh for plotting
x_u, u = u_glob(c, vertices, cells, dof_map,
                 resolution_per_element=51)
plot(x_u, u)
```

# Approximating a parabola by P0 elements



The approximate function automates the steps in the previous slide:

```
from fe_approx1D_numint import *  
x=sm.Symbol("x")  
for N_e in 4, 8:  
    approximate(x*(1-x), d=0, N_e=N_e, Omega=[0,1])
```

# Computing the error of the approximation; principles

$$L^2 \text{ error: } \|e\|_{L^2} = \left( \int_{\Omega} e^2 dx \right)^{1/2}$$

Accurate approximation of the integral:

- Sample  $u(x)$  at many points in each element (call `u_glob`, returns `x` and `u`)
- Use the Trapezoidal rule based on the samples
- It is important to integrate  $u$  accurately *over the elements*
- (In a finite difference method we would just sample the mesh point values)

# Computing the error of the approximation; details

## Note.

We need a version of the Trapezoidal rule valid for non-uniformly spaced points:

$$\int_{\Omega} g(x) dx \approx \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{2} (g(x_j) + g(x_{j+1})) (x_{j+1} - x_j)$$

```
# Given c, compute x and u values on a very fine mesh
x, u = u_glob(c, vertices, cells, dof_map,
               resolution_per_element=101)
# Compute the error on the very fine mesh
e = f(x) - u
e2 = e**2
# Vectorized Trapezoidal rule
E = np.sqrt(0.5*np.sum((e2[:-1] + e2[1:]))*(x[1:] - x[:-1])))
```



## How does the error depend on $h$ and $d$ ?

Theory and experiments show that the least squares or projection/Galerkin method in combination with  $P_d$  elements of equal length  $h$  has an error

$$\|e\|_{L^2} = Ch^{d+1} \tag{70}$$

where  $C$  depends on  $f$ , but not on  $h$  or  $d$ .

# Cubic Hermite polynomials; definition

- Can we construct  $\varphi_i(x)$  with continuous derivatives? Yes!

Consider a reference cell  $[-1, 1]$ . We introduce two nodes,  $X = -1$  and  $X = 1$ . The degrees of freedom are

- 0: value of function at  $X = -1$
- 1: value of first derivative at  $X = -1$
- 2: value of function at  $X = 1$
- 3: value of first derivative at  $X = 1$

Derivatives as unknowns ensure the same  $\varphi'_i(x)$  value at nodes and thereby continuous derivatives.

# Cubic Hermite polynomials; derivation

4 constraints on  $\tilde{\varphi}_r$  (1 for dof  $r$ , 0 for all others):

- $\tilde{\varphi}_0(X_{(0)}) = 1, \tilde{\varphi}_0(X_{(1)}) = 0, \tilde{\varphi}'_0(X_{(0)}) = 0, \tilde{\varphi}'_0(X_{(1)}) = 0$
- $\tilde{\varphi}'_1(X_{(0)}) = 1, \tilde{\varphi}'_1(X_{(1)}) = 0, \tilde{\varphi}_1(X_{(0)}) = 0, \tilde{\varphi}_1(X_{(1)}) = 0$
- $\tilde{\varphi}_2(X_{(1)}) = 1, \tilde{\varphi}_2(X_{(0)}) = 0, \tilde{\varphi}'_2(X_{(0)}) = 0, \tilde{\varphi}'_2(X_{(1)}) = 0$
- $\tilde{\varphi}'_3(X_{(1)}) = 1, \tilde{\varphi}'_3(X_{(0)}) = 0, \tilde{\varphi}_3(X_{(0)}) = 0, \tilde{\varphi}_3(X_{(1)}) = 0$

This gives 4 linear, coupled equations *for each*  $\tilde{\varphi}_r$  to determine the 4 coefficients in the cubic polynomial

$$\tilde{\varphi}_0(X) = 1 - \frac{3}{4}(X+1)^2 + \frac{1}{4}(X+1)^3 \quad (71)$$

$$\tilde{\varphi}_1(X) = -(X+1)\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}(X+1)\right)^2 \quad (72)$$

$$\tilde{\varphi}_2(X) = \frac{3}{4}(X+1)^2 - \frac{1}{2}(X+1)^3 \quad (73)$$

$$\tilde{\varphi}_3(X) = -\frac{1}{2}(X+1)\left(\frac{1}{2}(X+1)^2 - (X+1)\right) \quad (74)$$

$$(75)$$

# Numerical integration

- $\int_{\Omega} f \varphi_i dx$  must in general be computed by numerical integration
- Numerical integration is often used for the matrix too

Common form of a numerical integration rule:

$$\int_{-1}^1 g(X) dX \approx \sum_{j=0}^M w_j g(\bar{X}_j), \quad (76)$$

where

- $\bar{X}_j$  are *integration points*
- $w_j$  are *integration weights*

Different rules correspond to different choices of points and weights

# The Midpoint rule

Simplest possibility: the Midpoint rule,

$$\int_{-1}^1 g(X) dX \approx 2g(0), \quad \bar{X}_0 = 0, \quad w_0 = 2, \quad (77)$$

Exact for linear integrands

# Newton-Cotes rules

- Idea: use a fixed, uniformly distributed set of points in  $[-1, 1]$
- The points often coincides with nodes
- Very useful for making  $\varphi_i \varphi_j = 0$  and get diagonal ("mass") matrices ("lumping")

The Trapezoidal rule:

$$\int_{-1}^1 g(X) dX \approx g(-1) + g(1), \quad \bar{X}_0 = -1, \bar{X}_1 = 1, w_0 = w_1 = 1, \quad (78)$$

Simpson's rule:

$$\int_{-1}^1 g(X) dX \approx \frac{1}{3} (g(-1) + 4g(0) + g(1)), \quad (79)$$

where

$$\bar{X}_0 = -1, \bar{X}_1 = 0, \bar{X}_2 = 1, w_0 = w_2 = \frac{1}{3}, w_1 = \frac{4}{3} \quad (80)$$

# Gauss-Legendre rules with optimized points

- Optimize the location of points to get higher accuracy
- Gauss-Legendre rules (quadrature) adjust points and weights to integrate polynomials exactly

$$M = 1: \quad \bar{X}_0 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \quad \bar{X}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \quad w_0 = w_1 = 1 \quad (81)$$

$$M = 2: \quad \bar{X}_0 = -\sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}, \quad \bar{X}_1 = 0, \quad \bar{X}_2 = \sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}, \quad w_0 = w_2 = \frac{5}{9}, \quad w_1 = \frac{8}{9} \quad (82)$$

- $M = 1$ : integrates 3rd degree polynomials exactly
- $M = 2$ : integrates 5th degree polynomials exactly
- In general,  $M$ -point rule integrates a polynomial of degree  $2M + 1$  exactly.

See `numint.py` for a large collection of Gauss-Legendre rules.



# Approximation of functions in 2D

## Extensibility of 1D ideas.

All the concepts and algorithms developed for approximation of 1D functions  $f(x)$  can readily be extended to 2D functions  $f(x, y)$  and 3D functions  $f(x, y, z)$ . Key formulas stay the same.

Inner product in 2D:

$$(f, g) = \int_{\Omega} f(x, y)g(x, y)dxdy \quad (83)$$

Least squares and project/Galerkin lead to a linear system

$$\sum_{j \in I} A_{i,j} c_j = b_i, \quad i \in I$$

$$A_{i,j} = (\psi_i, \psi_j)$$

$$b_i = (f, \psi_i)$$

Challenge: How to construct 2D basis functions  $\psi_i(x, y)$ ?

## 2D basis functions as tensor products of 1D functions

Use a 1D basis for  $x$  variation and a similar for  $y$  variation:

$$V_x = \text{span}\{\hat{\psi}_0(x), \dots, \hat{\psi}_{N_x}(x)\} \quad (84)$$

$$V_y = \text{span}\{\hat{\psi}_0(y), \dots, \hat{\psi}_{N_y}(y)\} \quad (85)$$

The 2D vector space can be defined as a *tensor product*  
 $V = V_x \otimes V_y$  with basis functions

$$\psi_{p,q}(x,y) = \hat{\psi}_p(x)\hat{\psi}_q(y) \quad p \in I_x, q \in I_y.$$

# Tensor products

Given two vectors  $a = (a_0, \dots, a_M)$  and  $b = (b_0, \dots, b_N)$  their *outer tensor product*, also called the *dyadic product*, is  $p = a \otimes b$ , defined through

$$p_{i,j} = a_i b_j, \quad i = 0, \dots, M, \quad j = 0, \dots, N.$$

Note:  $p$  has two indices (as a matrix or two-dimensional array)

Example: 2D basis as tensor product of 1D spaces,

$$\psi_{p,q}(x, y) = \hat{\psi}_p(x) \hat{\psi}_q(y), \quad p \in I_x, q \in I_y$$

## Double or single index?

The 2D basis can employ a double index and double sum:

$$u = \sum_{p \in I_x} \sum_{q \in I_y} c_{p,q} \psi_{p,q}(x, y)$$

Or just a single index:

$$u = \sum_{j \in I} c_j \psi_j(x, y)$$

with

$$\psi_i(x, y) = \hat{\psi}_p(x) \hat{\psi}_q(y), \quad i = pN_y + q \text{ or } i = qN_x + p$$

## Example on 2D (bilinear) basis functions; formulas

In 1D we use the basis

$$\{1, x\}$$

2D tensor product (all combinations):

$$\psi_{0,0} = 1, \quad \psi_{1,0} = x, \quad \psi_{0,1} = y, \quad \psi_{1,1} = xy$$

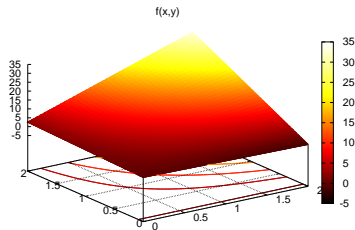
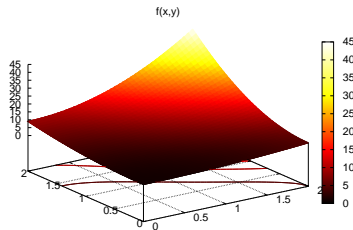
or with a single index:

$$\psi_0 = 1, \quad \psi_1 = x, \quad \psi_2 = y, \quad \psi_3 = xy$$

See notes for details of a hand-calculation.

# Example on 2D (bilinear) basis functions; plot

Quadratic  $f(x, y) = (1 + x^2)(1 + 2y^2)$  (left), bilinear  $u$  (right):



## Implementation; principal changes to the 1D code

Very small modification of `approx1D.py`:

- $\Omega = [[0, L_x], [0, L_y]]$
- Symbolic integration in 2D
- Construction of 2D (tensor product) basis functions

# Implementation; 2D integration

```
import sympy as sm

integrand = psi[i]*psi[j]
I = sm.integrate(integrand,
                  (x, Omega[0][0], Omega[0][1]),
                  (y, Omega[1][0], Omega[1][1]))

# Fall back on numerical integration if symbolic integration
# was unsuccessful
if isinstance(I, sm.Integral):
    integrand = sm.lambdify([x,y], integrand)
    I = sm.mpmath.quad(integrand,
                        [Omega[0][0], Omega[0][1]],
                        [Omega[1][0], Omega[1][1]])
```



# Implementation; 2D basis functions

Tensor product of 1D "Taylor-style" polynomials  $x^i$ :

```
def taylor(x, y, Nx, Ny):  
    return [x**i*y**j for i in range(Nx+1) for j in range(Ny+1)]
```

Tensor product of 1D sine functions  $\sin((i+1)\pi x)$ :

```
def sines(x, y, Nx, Ny):  
    return [sm.sin(sm.pi*(i+1)*x)*sm.sin(sm.pi*(j+1)*y)  
            for i in range(Nx+1) for j in range(Ny+1)]
```

Complete code in approx2D.py

$$f(x, y) = (1 + x^2)(1 + 2y^2)$$

```
>>> from approx2D import *
>>> f = (1+x**2)*(1+2*y**2)
>>> psi = taylor(x, y, 1, 1)
>>> Omega = [[0, 2], [0, 2]]
>>> u, c = least_squares(f, psi, Omega)
>>> print u
8*x*y - 2*x/3 + 4*y/3 - 1/9
>>> print sm.expand(f)
2*x**2*y**2 + x**2 + 2*y**2 + 1
```

## Implementation; trying a perfect expansion

Add higher powers to the basis such that  $f \in V$ :

```
>>> psi = taylor(x, y, 2, 2)
>>> u, c = least_squares(f, psi, Omega)
>>> print u
2*x**2*y**2 + x**2 + 2*y**2 + 1
>>> print u-f
0
```

Expected:  $u = f$  when  $f \in V$

# Generalization to 3D

Key idea:

$$V = V_x \otimes V_y \otimes V_z$$

Repeated outer tensor product of multiple vectors.

$$a^{(q)} = (a_0^{(q)}, \dots, a_{N_q}^{(q)}), \quad q = 0, \dots, m$$

$$p = a^{(0)} \otimes \dots \otimes a^{(m)}$$

$$p_{i_0, i_1, \dots, i_m} = a_{i_1}^{(0)} a_{i_1}^{(1)} \dots a_{i_m}^{(m)}$$

$$\psi_{p,q,r}(x, y, z) = \hat{\psi}_p(x) \hat{\psi}_q(y) \hat{\psi}_r(z)$$

$$u(x, y, z) = \sum_{p \in I_x} \sum_{q \in I_y} \sum_{r \in I_z} c_{p,q,r} \psi_{p,q,r}(x, y, z)$$

The two great advantages of the finite element method:

- Can handle complex-shaped domains in 2D and 3D
- Can easily provide higher-order polynomials in the approximation

Finite elements in 1D: mostly for learning, insight, debugging

# Examples on cell types

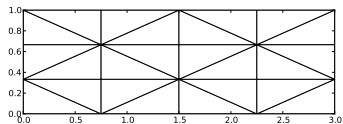
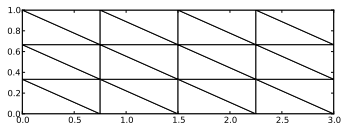
2D:

- triangles
- quadrilaterals

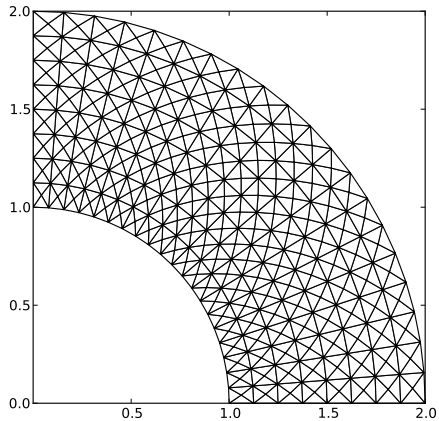
3D:

- tetrahedra
- hexahedra

# Rectangular domain with 2D P1 elements

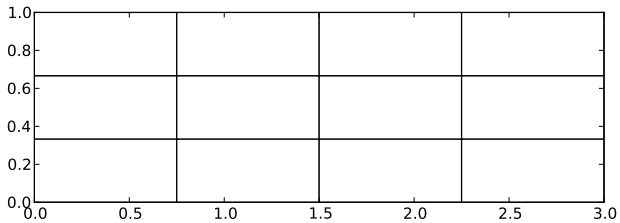


# Deformed geometry with 2D P1 elements



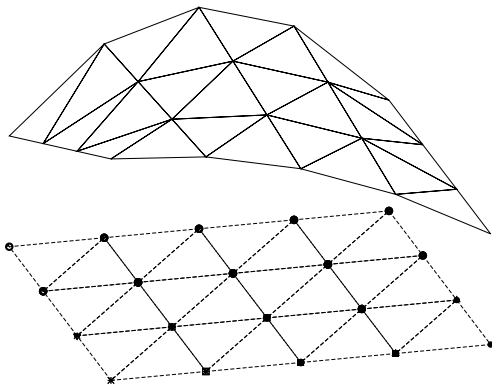


# Rectangular domain with 2D Q1 elements



# Basis functions over triangles in the physical domain

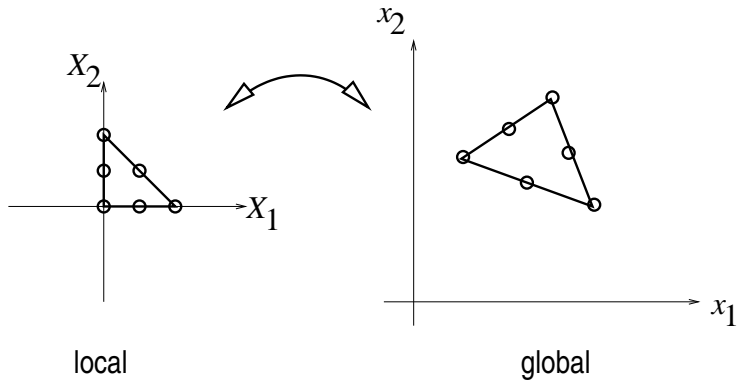
The P1 triangular 2D element:  $u$  is linear  $ax + by + c$  over each triangular cell



# Basic features of 2D P1 elements

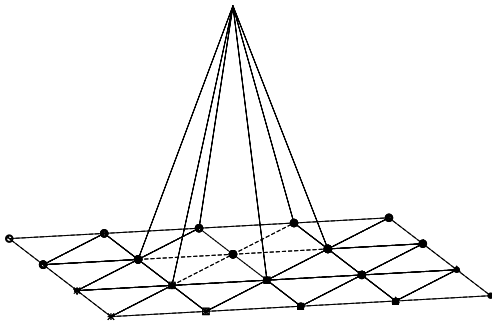
- $\varphi_r(X, Y)$  is a linear function over each element
- Cells = triangles
- Vertices = corners of the cells
- Nodes = vertices
- Degrees of freedom = function values at the nodes

# Linear mapping of reference element onto general triangular cell



## $\varphi_i$ : pyramid shape, composed of planes

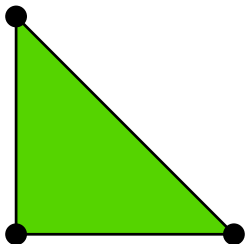
- $\varphi_i(X, Y)$  varies linearly over an element
- $\varphi_i = 1$  at vertex (node)  $i$ , 0 at all other vertices (nodes)



# Element matrices and vectors

- As in 1D, the contribution from one cell to the matrix involves just a few numbers, collected in the element matrix and vector
- $\varphi_i \varphi_j \neq 0$  only if  $i$  and  $j$  are degrees of freedom (vertices/nodes) in the same element
- The 2D P1 has a  $3 \times 3$  element matrix

## Basis functions over triangles in the reference cell



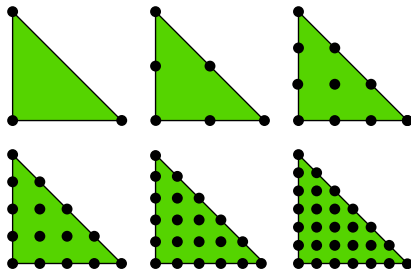
$$\tilde{\varphi}_0(X, Y) = 1 - X - Y \quad (86)$$

$$\tilde{\varphi}_1(X, Y) = X \quad (87)$$

$$\tilde{\varphi}_2(X, Y) = Y \quad (88)$$

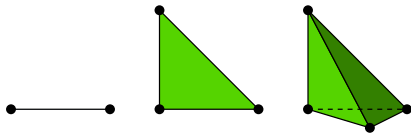
Higher-degree  $\tilde{\varphi}_r$  introduce more nodes (dof = node values)

## 2D P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, and P6 elements

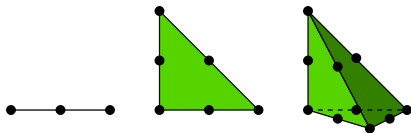




# P1 elements in 1D, 2D, and 3D



## P2 elements in 1D, 2D, and 3D



- Interval, triangle, tetrahedron: *simplex* element (plural quick-form: *simplices*)
- Side of the cell is called *face*
- Tetrahedron has also *edges*

## Affine mapping of the reference cell; formula

Mapping of local  $\mathbf{X} = (X, Y)$  coordinates in the reference cell to global, physical  $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)$  coordinates:

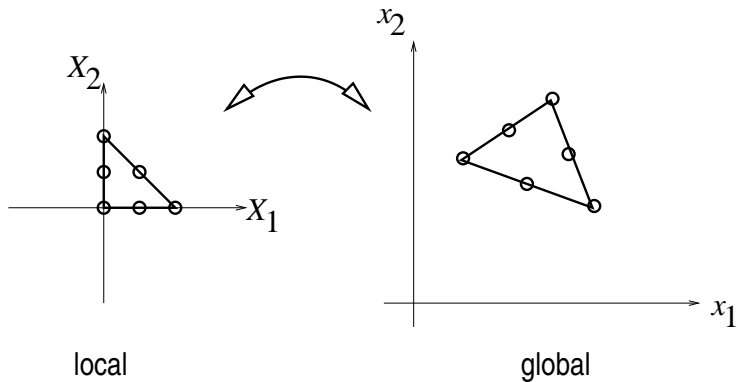
$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_r \tilde{\varphi}_r^{(1)}(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{x}_{q(e,r)} \quad (89)$$

where

- $r$  runs over the local vertex numbers in the cell
- $\mathbf{x}_i$  are the  $(x, y)$  coordinates of vertex  $i$
- $\tilde{\varphi}_r^{(1)}$  are P1 basis functions

This mapping preserves the straight/planar faces and edges.

# Affine mapping of the reference cell; figure

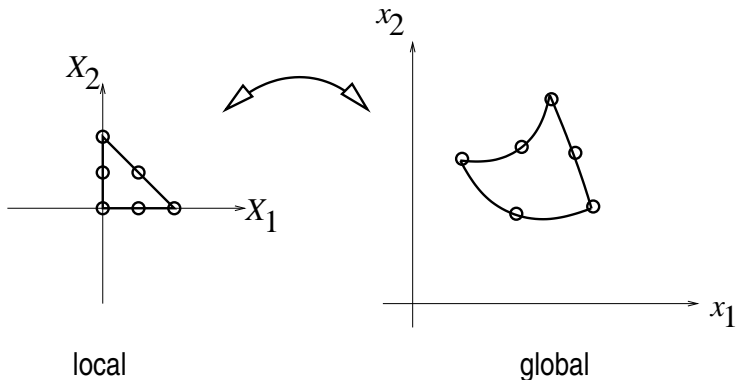


# Isoparametric mapping of the reference cell

Idea: Use the basis functions of the element (not only the P1 functions) to map the element

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_r \tilde{\varphi}_r(\mathbf{X}) \mathbf{x}_{q(e,r)} \quad (90)$$

Advantage: higher-order polynomial basis functions now map the reference cell to a *curved* triangle or tetrahedron.



# Computing integrals

Integrals must be transformed from  $\Omega^{(e)}$  (physical cell) to  $\tilde{\Omega}^r$  (reference cell):

$$\int_{\Omega^{(e)}} \varphi_i(\mathbf{x}) \varphi_j(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\tilde{\Omega}^r} \tilde{\varphi}_i(\mathbf{X}) \tilde{\varphi}_j(\mathbf{X}) \det J \, d\mathbf{X} \quad (91)$$

$$\int_{\Omega^{(e)}} \varphi_i(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{x}) \, d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\tilde{\Omega}^r} \tilde{\varphi}_i(\mathbf{X}) f(\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{X})) \det J \, d\mathbf{X} \quad (92)$$

where  $d\mathbf{x} = dx dy$  or  $d\mathbf{x} = dx dy dz$  and  $\det J$  is the determinant of the Jacobian of the mapping  $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{X})$ .

$$J = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial X} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial Y} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial X} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial Y} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \det J = \frac{\partial x}{\partial X} \frac{\partial y}{\partial Y} - \frac{\partial x}{\partial Y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial X} \quad (93)$$

Affine mapping (89):  $\det J = 2\Delta$ ,  $\Delta$  = cell volume

!slide **Remark on going from 1D to 2D/3D**

Finite elements in 2D and 3D builds on the same *ideas* and *concepts* as in 1D, but there is simply much more to compute because the specific mathematical formulas in 2D and 3D are more