

# Lecture 1:

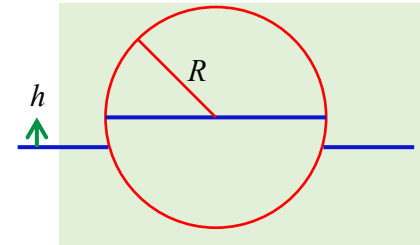
## De-dimensionalisation *(simplifying your model)*

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## Dealing with physical units

- Each physical quantity has units (dimensions). Your starting model is likely to have variables and parameters measured in physical units.

Example (ODE): A model of a buoy



$$\frac{2}{3}\pi R^3 \rho \frac{d^2 h}{dt^2} + \alpha \frac{dh}{dt} + \rho g \pi R^2 h - \frac{1}{3}\rho g \pi h^3 = 0$$

mass\*acceleration

friction

gravity and buoyant forces

## Dealing with physical units

$$\frac{2}{3}\pi R^3 \rho \frac{d^2 h}{dt^2} + \alpha \frac{dh}{dt} + \rho g \pi R^2 h - \frac{1}{3}\rho g \pi h^3 = 0$$

- Each term in this equation must have the same units of  $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-2} = \text{N}$
- Have a look at each variable and parameter separately:

|                 |  |                      |   |
|-----------------|--|----------------------|---|
| <b><i>h</i></b> | - Position in <i>m</i>                             | $\frac{dh}{dt}$      | - First derivative (velocity) in ...      |
| <b><i>t</i></b> | - Time in <i>s</i>                                 |                      |   |
| <b><i>ρ</i></b> | - Density in <i>kg/m<sup>3</sup></i>               | $\frac{d^2 h}{dt^2}$ | - Second derivative (acceleration) in ... |
| <b><i>R</i></b> | - Radius in <i>m</i>                               |                      |   |
| <b><i>g</i></b> | - Free fall acceleration in <i>m/s<sup>2</sup></i> |                      |   |
| <b><i>α</i></b> | - friction coefficient in ...                      |                      |   |

## From a theorist's perspective...

$$\frac{2}{3}\pi R^3\rho\frac{d^2h}{dt^2} + \alpha\frac{dh}{dt} + \rho g\pi R^2h - \frac{1}{3}\rho g\pi h^3 = 0$$

- This is an equation for  $h(t)$

VARIABLES:

PARAMETERS:

- This is a 2<sup>nd</sup> order ODE problem => **requires 2 auxiliary conditions**

**EITHER:**

**Initial Value Problem (IVP):**

**OR:**

**Boundary Value Problem (BVP):**

specify  $h$  or  $\frac{dh}{dt}$  at each boundary of the domain of the independent variable. E.g.

**i** For PDE problems can have combinations of IVP/BVP for each independent variable

- This is a damped oscillator problem with a nonlinear term

**i** Use your knowledge of physics and math to establish useful connections: crucial for choosing a proper numerical method and testing and debugging your codes!

# De-dimensionalisation

- Systematically reduce number of **parameters** by making each term in the equation dimensionless
- Also makes generic behaviour easier to spot.

$$\frac{2}{3}\pi R^3 \rho \frac{d^2 h}{dt^2} + \alpha \frac{dh}{dt} + \rho g \pi R^2 h - \frac{1}{3}\rho g \pi h^3 = 0$$

***h*** – dependent variable

***t*** – independent variable

## 1) Define dimensionless versions of the variables



Here ***y*** is dimensionless position, and ***H*** is a scale that we will define later

Similarly ***x*** is dimensionless time, and ***T*** is a timescale that we will define later

## 2) Substitute in the original equation

## A de-tour: dealing with derivatives

$$h = Hy, \quad t = Tx$$

Hence what is  $\frac{dh}{dt}$ ,  $\frac{d^2h}{dt^2}$ ,  $\frac{d^nh}{dt^n}$ ?


$$\frac{2}{3}\pi R^3\rho\frac{d^2h}{dt^2} + \alpha\frac{dh}{dt} + \rho g\pi R^2h - \frac{1}{3}\rho g\pi h^3 = 0 \quad h = Hy, \quad t = Tx$$

2) Substitute in the original equation

$$\frac{2}{3}\pi R^3\rho \boxed{\phantom{000000}} + \alpha \boxed{\phantom{000000}} + \rho g\pi R^2 \boxed{\phantom{000000}} - \frac{1}{3}\rho g\pi \boxed{\phantom{000000}} = 0$$

3) Make the equation dimensionless. There are choices, e.g.

$$\div \frac{2}{3}\pi R^3\rho\frac{H}{T^2} \rightarrow \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{3}{2}\frac{\alpha T}{\pi R^3\rho}\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{3gT^2}{2R}y - \frac{gH^2T^2}{2R^3}y^3 = 0$$

 This term is dimensionless, so are all

Moreover, since  $\frac{dy}{dx}, y, y^3$  are all dimensionless (just numbers), so are all the

dimensionless products:  $\frac{3}{2}\frac{\alpha T}{\pi R^3\rho}, \frac{3gT^2}{2R}, \frac{gH^2T^2}{2R^3}$

#### 4) Fix scales to simplify the equation

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \frac{3}{2} \frac{\alpha T}{\pi R^3 \rho} \frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{3gT^2}{2R} y - \frac{gH^2 T^2}{2R^3} y^3 = 0$$

E.g. can set  by selecting the timescale

Then set  by selecting the scale

$$H = \sqrt{\frac{2R^3}{gT^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{2R^3}{g} \frac{3g}{2R}} = \text{$$

=> The dimensionless equation becomes:

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \frac{3}{2} \frac{\alpha}{\pi R^3 \rho} \frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{3}{2} y - y^3 = 0$$

with the single dimensionless parameter

$$a = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\alpha T}{\pi R^3 \rho} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{\alpha}{\pi R^3 \rho} \sqrt{\frac{2R}{3g}} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} \frac{\alpha}{\pi R^{5/2} \rho \sqrt{g}}}$$



# Benefits of using the de-dimensionalisation procedure

$$\frac{2}{3}\pi R^3 \rho \frac{d^2 h}{dt^2} + \alpha \frac{dh}{dt} + \rho g \pi R^2 h - \frac{1}{3}\rho g \pi h^3 = 0 \quad \text{with 3(4) parameters: } R, \alpha, \rho, (g)$$



$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + a \frac{dy}{dx} + y - y^3 = 0 \quad \text{with one parameter } a = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{\alpha}{\pi R^{5/2} \rho \sqrt{g}}$$

- Reduced number of parameters: easier to explore possible solutions. Crucial for tasks like parameter optimization.
- Helps to reveal the important dependencies and identify the generic behaviour

*Eg the limit of weak damping is achieved when*



*Also, systems with the same ratio  $\frac{\alpha}{R^{5/2} \rho \sqrt{g}}$  will display the same behaviour (up to the rescaling factors), as they correspond to the same dimensionless system*

- Easier to work with (certainly) analytically and (arguably) numerically

## Some useful tips

1) Don't forget to re-write the auxiliary conditions in terms of the dimensionless variables!

*E.g. the Initial Value Problem:*

$$\frac{2}{3}\pi R^3 \rho \frac{d^2 h}{dt^2} + \alpha \frac{dh}{dt} + \rho g \pi R^2 h - \frac{1}{3}\rho g \pi h^3 = 0$$

$$h(t = 0) = h_0, \quad \frac{dh}{dt}(t = 0) = v_0$$

*Transforms into:*

$$h = Hy, \quad t = Tx$$

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + a \frac{dy}{dx} + y - y^3 = 0 \quad a = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{\alpha}{\pi R^{5/2} \rho \sqrt{g}}$$



## Some useful tips

2) Know how to transform your solution back to the physical variables!

$$h = Hy, \quad t = Tx$$

$$H = \sqrt{3}R, T = \sqrt{\frac{2R}{3g}}$$

$$y = f(x) \Rightarrow$$



Note: Systems with the same ratio  $\frac{\alpha}{R^{5/2}\rho\sqrt{g}}$  will have the same solutions  $y(x)$ , but they will correspond to different solutions  $h(t)$  due to the different scalings

For example, if two buoys have  $\alpha_2 = 2\alpha_1$  and  $R_2 = 2^{2/5}R_1$ , their oscillations will be described by the same dimensionless function  $y(x)$ . But the physical amplitude of oscillation of the second buoy will be  $2^{2/5}$  times larger than of the first buoy, while the period of the second buoy will be  $2^{1/5}$  shorter.

## Some useful tips

3) In linear homogeneous equations, scaling of the dependent variable may be not helpful

*E.g. wave equation*

$$\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 0$$

$$u = A\psi \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} = 0 \quad \text{same equation!}$$

.. but can still make sense for systems of coupled equations

*E.g.*

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{du}{dt} &= \beta_1 u + C_1 w \\ \frac{dw}{dt} &= \beta_2 w + C_2 u \end{aligned} \quad \begin{aligned} u &= A\psi \\ w &= B\phi \end{aligned} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{aligned} \frac{d\psi}{dt} &= \beta_1 \psi + C_1 \frac{B}{A} \phi \\ \frac{d\phi}{dt} &= \beta_2 \phi + C_2 \frac{A}{B} \psi \end{aligned}$$

By selecting e.g.  $\frac{A}{B} = \sqrt{C_1/C_2}$  can reduce it to the three-parameter (instead of the initial four-parameter) problem with the same coupling coefficient  $q = \sqrt{C_1 C_2}$

## Some useful tips

4) In equations containing functions of a dimensionless variable [eg  $\sin \theta$ ,  $\ln(u)$ , etc] a scaling of this variable rarely works

*E.g. a pendulum equation*

$$\ddot{\theta} + \sqrt{g/l} \sin \theta = 0$$

*Note:  $\theta$  is already dimensionless here (angle).  
The argument of a function must always be dimensionless!*

Try  $\theta = A\alpha$



*Hmmm, that 's hardly  
an improvement!*

# Alternative way of de-dimensionalisation

- Choose scales suitable for the problem at the start

*E.g. for the buoy problem you may wish to select the typical amplitude and oscillation period scales:*

$$H = 1\text{cm}, T = 250\text{ ms}$$

You will not change the number of parameters, but you can work with more comfortable ranges of variables, e.g. by ensuring that all the values are  $O(1)$

This option is often used when you work with extremely large (astro) or extremely small (nanoscience, optics, quantum) scales.

# How this topic will be assessed:

- Coursework
- Typical questions on exam:
  - 1) *For a given equation(s) written in physical units:*
    - *Identify variables and parameters;*
    - *Use de-dimensionalisation to either (i) reduce to the desired form, or (ii) minimize the number of parameters;*
    - *Formulate the auxiliary conditions in terms of the dimensionless variables.*
  - 2) *Show that a given equation can be reduced to the desired form by scaling transformations*

*See further examples in worksheet 1*

Lecture 2:

Grid-point discretisation

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# Discretisation

When using digital computers variables, functions, operators etc. must be represented DISCRETELY.

→ an extra source of approximation in our models

Must therefore consider extra issues:

- Discretisation error
- Stability of numerical method

We will consider 2 broad classes of discretisation;

via **grids** and via **basis sets**.

## Grid-point discretisation

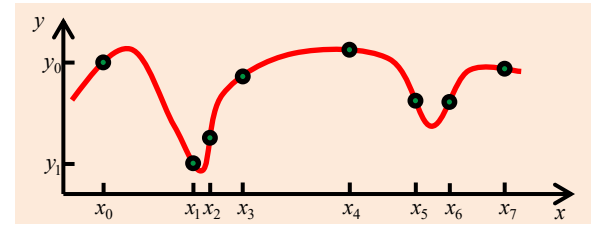
Represent function  $y(x)$  and its derivatives  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ ,  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \dots$  using only values of  $y$  at a discrete set of points  $x_0, x_1, x_2 \dots \equiv \{x_i\}$

### (a) Functions

Continuous  $y(x)$  represented by  $y(x_0), y(x_1), y(x_2) \dots$  ;  
write  $y(x_i) = y_i$  , and the set of discrete values as  $\{y_i\}$  .

Many functions have same  $\{y_i\}$  , so issue with accuracy.

## (b) Derivatives



Use Taylor series

$$y(x+a) = y(x) + ay'(x) + \frac{a^2}{2} y''(x) + \dots + \frac{a^n}{n!} y^{(n)}(x) + \dots \quad (1)$$

to approximate derivatives at grid points, using differences between the  $y_i$

eg  $y'(x)$ : At grid point  $x_i$ , with  $x_{i+1} = x_i + a$ , (1) gives

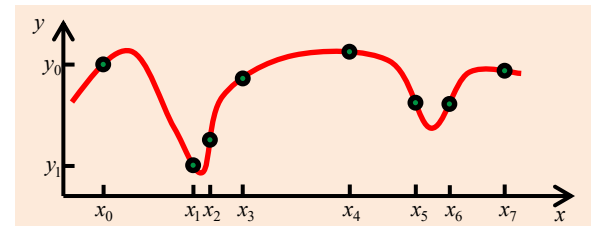
$$y(x_{i+1}) = y(x_i) + ay'(x_i) + \frac{a^2}{2} y''(x_i) + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow y'(x_i) = \frac{1}{a} \left\{ y(x_{i+1}) - y(x_i) - \frac{a^2}{2} y''(x_i) - \dots \right\}$$

or, in shorthand:



$$y'_i = \frac{1}{a} \left\{ y_{i+1} - y_i - \frac{a^2}{2} y''_i - \dots \right\}$$



Terms from here are unknown.

OMIT them all, to yield the

“forward difference approximation” (FDA) to  $y'(x_i)$ :



The discretisation error  $\varepsilon$  contains all the terms we omitted.

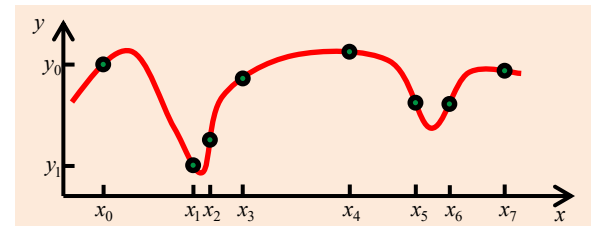
Here

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1}{a} \left\{ \frac{a^2}{2} y''_i + \frac{a^3}{6} y'''_i + \dots \right\}$$



terms get smaller (if  $a$  is small)

So for small  $a$ , the first omitted term ( $\propto a$ ) dominates  $\varepsilon$ ;  
we say that the FDA has discretisation error  $\varepsilon$  which is  $O(a)$ .



Similarly, use Taylor

$$y(x - a) = y(x) - ay'(x) + \frac{a^2}{2} y''(x) + \dots + (-1)^n \frac{a^n}{n!} y^{(n)}(x) + \dots \quad (2)$$

to obtain another approximation for the derivative at grid point  $x_i$ :

At grid point  $x_i$ , with  $x_{i-1} = x_i - a$ , (2) gives

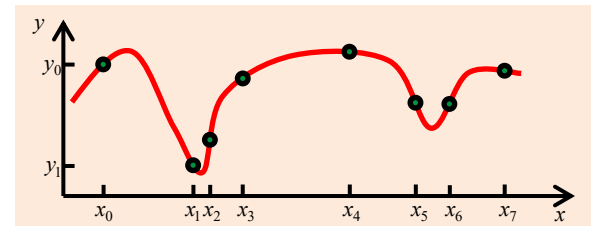
$$y(x_{i-1}) = y(x_i) - ay'(x_i) + \frac{a^2}{2} y''(x_i) + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow y'(x_i) = \frac{1}{a} \left\{ y(x_i) - y(x_{i-1}) + \frac{a^2}{2} y''(x_i) - \dots \right\}$$

or, in shorthand:



$$y'_i = \frac{1}{a} \left\{ y_i - y_{i-1} + \frac{a^2}{2} y''_i - \dots \right\}$$



Again,

OMIT all terms from here, to yield the  
 “backward difference approximation” (BDA) to  $y'(x_i)$  :



It is easy to see that BDA also has discretisation error  $O(a)$  .

$O(a)$  errors aren't very good. If  $a \rightarrow \frac{a}{2}$ ,  $\varepsilon \rightarrow \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  .

Can usually do (a bit) better for not much effort.

Let us write the two versions of Taylor series side by side:

$$y(x + a) = y(x) + ay'(x) + \frac{a^2}{2}y''(x) + \cdots + \frac{a^n}{n!}y^{(n)}(x) + \dots \quad (1)$$

$$y(x - a) = y(x) - ay'(x) + \frac{a^2}{2}y''(x) + \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{a^n}{n!}y^{(n)}(x) + \dots \quad (2)$$

① - ② yields a “centred-difference approximation” (CDA)



Since the  $\frac{a^2}{2}y''(x)$  terms cancel,  $\varepsilon$  is now  $O(a^2)$ .

Note that a regularly-spaced grid is a simple way to produce an  $O(a^2)$  approximation to this derivative.

Let us summarize the three formulas we obtained for  $y'(x_i)$  :

| Type             | Formula   | Discretisation error |
|------------------|---|----------------------|
| $y', \text{FDA}$ | $y'_i \approx \frac{1}{a} \{y_{i+1} - y_i\}$      | $O(a)$               |
| $y', \text{BDA}$ | $y'_i \approx \frac{1}{a} \{y_i - y_{i-1}\}$      | $O(a)$               |
| $y', \text{CDA}$ | $y'_i \approx \frac{1}{2a} \{y_{i+1} - y_{i-1}\}$ | $O(a^2)$             |

- Notes:
- 1) regular grid is required for CDA
  - 2) FDA and BDA are useful for initial value problems (more details later!)



What about  $y''(x)$ ?

$$y(x+a) = y(x) + ay'(x) + \frac{a^2}{2}y''(x) + \cdots + \frac{a^n}{n!}y^{(n)}(x) + \dots \quad (1)$$

$$y(x-a) = y(x) - ay'(x) + \frac{a^2}{2}y''(x) + \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{a^n}{n!}y^{(n)}(x) + \dots \quad (2)$$

(1) + (2) gives



And so we obtain:

$$y''(x_i) = \frac{1}{a^2} \left[ y_{i+1} + y_{i-1} - 2y_i - \frac{a^4}{12} y''''(x_i) - \cdots \right]$$

Omit terms from here.

Easy to see that the error is

$O(a^2)$

## A useful set of formulas for discrete derivatives:

| Type              | Formula   | Error    |
|-------------------|---|----------|
| $y', \text{FDA}$  | $y'_i \approx \frac{1}{a} \{y_{i+1} - y_i\}$                | $O(a)$   |
| $y', \text{BDA}$  | $y'_i \approx \frac{1}{a} \{y_i - y_{i-1}\}$                | $O(a)$   |
| $y', \text{CDA}$  | $y'_i \approx \frac{1}{2a} \{y_{i+1} - y_{i-1}\}$           | $O(a^2)$ |
| $y'', \text{CDA}$ | $y''(x_i) \approx \frac{1}{a^2} [y_{i+1} + y_{i-1} - 2y_i]$ | $O(a^2)$ |

Note: regular grid is required for CDA formulas!

- *A side note:* One could attempt to obtain  $y''(x_i)$  by applying recursively the earlier derived formulas for  $y'$ :

$$y''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}[y'(x)] \quad \Rightarrow \quad y''(x_i) \approx \frac{1}{2a}[y'(x_{i+1}) - y'(x_{i-1})]$$

with  $y'(x_i) \approx \frac{1}{2a}[y(x_{i+1}) - y(x_{i-1})]$

It is easy to see [check it yourself!] that this is equivalent to

$$y''(x_i) \approx \frac{1}{4a^2}[y_{i+2} + y_{i-2} - 2y_i]$$

I.e. we obtained exactly the same formula as we derived earlier, only **with a twice larger discretization step  $a \rightarrow 2a$**

**Hence the error is 4 times larger - do not do this!**

Computational cost is the reason to chase  $\varepsilon \sim O(a^2)$

Express in terms of required memory  $M$  and time  $T$

Will see later that to solve a discretised problem with  $N$  grid points

$$M \sim N^2 \quad T \sim N^3$$

So for an ODE with fixed domain and regular grids,  
halving the grid spacing  $a \rightarrow a/2$  requires  $N \rightarrow 2N$  points  
leading to  **$M \rightarrow 4M$**  and  **$T \rightarrow 8T$**

- an expensive change if it only halves  $\varepsilon$  !
- $\varepsilon \sim O(a^2)$  is not great, but MUCH better than  $\varepsilon \sim O(a)$

An example: discretize the following Boundary Value Problem

$$\frac{dy}{dt} + t^2 y = \cos(2\pi t) , \quad y(0) = 0, \quad \frac{dy}{dt}(1) = 3$$



## Natural vs Essential auxiliary conditions

- Auxiliary conditions are an important part of the problem. They are as important as the equation you are trying to solve!
- One and the same equation with different auxiliary conditions corresponds to different physical setups and may require different numerical methods
- Some auxiliary conditions **you will need to implement** explicitly in your numerical model – such conditions are called **ESSENTIAL conditions**
- Some auxiliary conditions will be **implemented automatically** by using a particular numerical technique – **NATURAL conditions**

*In point-grid discretisation:*

The zero Dirichlet boundary condition  $y(x=a)=0$  is the NATURAL boundary condition

All other (including non-zero Dirichlet) boundary conditions are essential.

# Finite Difference Method

- Solving ODEs and PDEs with grid-point discretization is generally known as the **Finite Difference Method (FDM)**
- FDM reduces differential equations to a set of algebraic equations for the values of the unknown function at grid points. This can then be solved numerically using well-established methodology: either **linear algebra methods** (for linear problems), **or various iteration methods** (for nonlinear problems).
- There are many approximations for derivatives via finite differences. Most common are the central-difference based involving nearest neighbours, but other options are also available.
- Always need to consider the cost (in terms of memory and computation time) required to reduce the computation error.
- **FDM** is the **easiest method to implement** (hence it is the most popular method) but it **has its own drawbacks**, especially in higher-dimensional problems. **We will discuss this in more details in Part 2 of the course.**



# How this topic will be assessed:

- Coursework
- Typical questions on exam:

*Discretise a given Boundary Value Problem ODE:*

- *Specify the grid step size, what coordinates the first and the last grid point correspond to, justify your choices;*
- *Write down a generic discretised equation for a grid point away from the boundaries;*
- *Write down the equations for the two boundary points;*
- *Quantify the discretisation error.*

*See further examples in worksheet 1*

Lecture 3:

Basis-set discretisation

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# Basis-set discretisation

Expand functions as a sum of BASIS FUNCTIONS.

$$f(t) = \sum_n c_n F_n(t) = c_1 F_1(t) + c_2 F_2(t) + c_3 F_3(t) + \dots$$

- The sum is formally infinite, but will have to be truncated in numerics
- The (discrete) set of coefficients  $c_n$  describes the function
- BASIS functions are some known analytical functions.  
Some popular choices are:
  - Fourier series expansion (*periodic functions*)
  - Hermite polynomials (*quantum harmonic oscillator type equations*)
  - Hankel functions (*dispersion/diffraction in radially symmetric geometries*)

## Basis-set discretisation

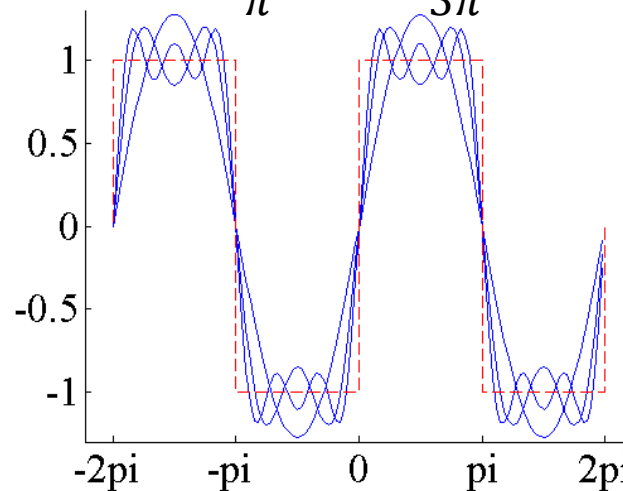
Expand functions as a sum of BASIS FUNCTIONS.

An example: Fourier series

$$f(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{in\omega t}; \quad g(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n \cos(n\omega t) + b_n \sin(n\omega t)]$$

$f(t)$  must be periodic!  $f(t + T) = f(t) \forall t$ ,  $T = 2\pi/\omega$

For a square wave  $g(t) = \frac{4}{\pi} \sin t + \frac{4}{3\pi} \sin 3t + \frac{4}{5\pi} \sin 5t + \dots$



$$T = 2\pi; \quad \omega = 1$$

Note that  $g(t)$  is defined for ALL  $t$ .

Discretisation error (usually) arises once the sum is truncated.

# Basis-set discretisation

How to choose a basis set?

$$f(t) = \sum_n c_n F_n(t) = c_1 F_1(t) + c_2 F_2(t) + c_3 F_3(t) + \dots$$

Main criteria when selecting the set  $F_n(t)$  :

- (PREFERABLY) a COMPLETE and ORTHONORMAL set  
*(means you can expand ANY function)*  
*(this is useful for deriving equations for  $c_n$  - see further examples)*
- Consistency with the auxiliary conditions  
*[e.g. complex exponents  $F_n(t) = \exp(in\omega t)$  satisfy periodic boundary conditions:  $F_n\left(t + \frac{2\pi}{\omega}\right) = F_n(t)$  ]*
- Speed of numerical conversion from/to the basis set  
*(i.e. for any function  $f(t)$  you should be able to obtain the corresponding set of coefficients  $c_n$ , and the same in the opposite direction)*

Differential operators act on the individual basis functions.

eg  $f(t) = \sum_n c_n e^{in\omega t}; \quad \frac{df}{dt} = \sum_n in\omega c_n e^{in\omega t}$

So, to discretise an ODE via basis sets:

- Choose a set of basis functions
- Substitute expansion into ODE and re-write as an algebraic equation in the expansion coefficients ( $c_n$ )
- Truncate summation if computing...
- Make sure the auxiliary conditions are satisfied (can lead to additional conditions on  $c_n$ )

# Complex Fourier series expansion

$$f(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{in\omega_0 t}$$

- Eigen-functions of differential operators

$$\frac{d^n}{dt^n} \exp(in\omega_0 t) =$$

- Requires periodic boundary condition!

Kronecker delta:

$$\delta_{l,m} =$$

- The set is complete, and orthonormal:

$$e_l(t) = e^{il\omega_0 t}$$

$$e_m(t) = e^{im\omega_0 t} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T e_l^*(t) e_m(t) dt =$$

*(revise Fourier series course!)*

## An example (Boundary Value Problem):

$$\frac{dy}{dt} + t^2 y = \cos(2\pi t) , \quad y(0) = y(1)$$

- NOTE: This problem has **periodic BC** => Convenient to use complex Fourier series as the Basis set:



Substitute into the equation:





$$\frac{dy}{dt} + t^2 y = \cos(2\pi t), y(0) = y(1)$$

$$y(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{in2\pi t}$$

$$\sum_n (in2\pi) c_n e^{in2\pi t} + t^2 \sum_n c_n e^{in2\pi t} = \cos(2\pi t)$$

Apply “closure”: multiply both sides by  $\exp(-im2\pi t)$  and integrate over the period:

$$\sum_n (in2\pi) c_n \int_0^1 \exp[i(n-m)2\pi t] dt + \sum_n c_n \int_0^1 t^2 \exp[i(n-m)2\pi t] dt$$

$$= \int_0^1 \cos(2\pi t) \exp[-im2\pi t] dt$$

$= \delta_{n,m}$  (orthogonality)

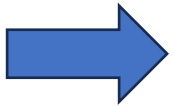
$$\sum_n (in2\pi) c_n \int_0^1 \exp[i(n-m)2\pi t] dt =$$



$$\frac{dy}{dt} + t^2 y = \cos(2\pi t), y(0) = y(1)$$

$$y(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{in2\pi t}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_n (in2\pi)c_n \int_0^1 \exp[i(n-m)2\pi t] dt + \sum_n c_n \int_0^1 t^2 \exp[i(n-m)2\pi t] dt \\ = \int_0^1 \cos(2\pi t) \exp[-im2\pi t] dt \end{aligned}$$



- this is a set of algebraic equations for the complex Fourier Series coefficients  $c_m$  of the solution  $y(t)$

**With the coefficients defined as:**

$$K_{m-n} = \int_0^1 t^2 \exp[-i(m-n)2\pi t] dt$$

- this is  $(\mathbf{m} - \mathbf{n})$ th complex **Fourier Series coefficient** of the *(periodic version of)* function  $t^2$

$$F_m = \int_0^1 \cos(2\pi t) \exp[-im2\pi t] dt$$

- this is  $\mathbf{m}$ th complex **Fourier Series coefficient** of the *(periodic version of)* right-hand side function  $\cos(2\pi t)$

**Note:** in this example the integrals are easy to tackle analytically and obtain all the coefficients. In real-life situation, you will need to compute such integrals numerically using Fast Fourier Transforms. *(Revise year 2 Fourier series course?)*

$$im2\pi c_m + \sum_n c_n K_{m-n} = F_m$$

Can write it in the matrix form:



(2N+1)-component vector

$$\vec{c} = [c_{-N}, c_{-N+1}, \dots, c_0, c_1, \dots, c_N]^T \quad - \quad \text{Unknown Fourier coeffs}$$

$$\vec{F} = [F_{-N}, F_{-N+1}, \dots, F_0, F_1, \dots, F_N]^T \quad - \quad \text{Fourier coeffs of the right-hand side func}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} + t^2 y = \cos(2\pi t), y(0) = y(1)$$

$$y(t) \approx \sum_{n=-N}^N c_n e^{in2\pi t}$$

**Note:** for numerical solution, we will have to truncate the infinite Fourier series at some (large enough) N.

- The truncation of the Fourier series **defines the discretisation error** of the Basis-set method

$$\hat{M} = \begin{bmatrix} D_{-N} & K_{-1} & K_{-2} & \dots & \dots & \dots & K_{-2N} \\ K_1 & D_{-N+1} & K_{-1} & K_{-2} & \dots & \dots & K_{-2N+1} \\ K_2 & K_1 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & K_1 & D_0 & K_{-1} & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \ddots & D_1 & \ddots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \ddots & \ddots & K_{-1} \\ K_{2N} & \dots & \dots & \dots & K_2 & K_1 & D_N \end{bmatrix} \quad - \quad (2N+1) \times (2N+1) \text{ full matrix}$$

$$D_m = im2\pi + K_0 \quad K_m = \int_0^1 t^2 e^{-ik2\pi t} dt \quad - \quad \text{Fourier coeffs of the variable coeff func } t^2$$

# Point-grid VS Basis-set discretisation

$$\frac{dy}{dt} + t^2 y = \cos(2\pi t) , y(0) = y(1)$$



## 1. Discretize

**N-point grid:**  $y_j = y(t_j)$

Replace derivatives with finite differences

Implement essential BCs

Derive the set of equations for  $y_j$

$$\hat{M}\vec{y} = \vec{f}$$

**Basis-set:**  $y(t) = \sum_n c_n \exp(in2\pi t)$

Make sure the chosen basis is compatible with BCs!

Truncate infinite sum e.g. for  $-N \leq n \leq N$

Substitute and derive the set of equations for  $c_n$

$$\hat{M}\vec{c} = \vec{F}$$

## 2. Solve (on a computer) the set of linear algebraic equations

**3. Obtain values of the function at the grid points  $y_j$**

**3. Obtain values of the expansion coefficients  $c_n$**

## Grid



- Easy to setup, including various auxiliary conditions

- Reduces the problem to the set of N coupled algebraic equations  
(The resulting matrices are typically sparse => good for numerics!)

*But in higher-dimensional problems the number of equations grows exponentially!*

- Solution is obtained at discrete points  
=> may be problematic for post-processing

## Basis-set

- Requires some effort to setup, take special care of:
  - auxiliary conditions;
  - choice of the basis set
- Reduces the problem to the set of N coupled algebraic equations  
(The resulting matrices are typically full => harder for numerics!)

*(with a proper basis set choice)  
easy to solve and/or have good convergence (i.e. require only few equations to solve)*

- Solution is obtained in analytic form:  
convenient for post-processing BUT can have poor convergence

- **Basis-set** discretisation is a powerful tool for **higher-dimensional** problems. In particular, spectral and pseudo-spectral methods for solving IVP PDE problems are based on basis-set discretisation.

# How this topic will be assessed:

- Coursework
- Typical questions on exam:

*Discuss advantages/disadvantages of Basis-set vs grid-point methods*

*Discretise a given Boundary Value Problem ODE using complex Fourier:*

- *Write down the basis-set expansion;*
- *Substitute in the original equation, apply the “closure” procedure, derive the equations for the Fourier coefficients;*
- *Write down the equations in the matrix form;*
- *Explain the nature of the discretisation error.*

*See further examples in worksheet 1*