

MAT 228A Notes

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1 Solving the Poisson Equation using Fourier Series

In 1-D, suppose $u_{xx} = f$ on $(0, 1)$ with $u(0) = u(1) = 0$. Note that if $f = -(n\pi)^2 \sin(n\pi x)$ then the solution is $u = \sin(n\pi x)$ by observation. Reframe the problem as $Lu = f$ with $L = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$. Then with $u_n := \sin(n\pi x)$, we have

$$Lu_n = -(n\pi)^2 u_n \quad (1)$$

and thus u_n is an eigenfunction of L with eigenvalue $-(n\pi)^2$. We can show they are orthogonal in $L^2(0, 1)$ by

$$\langle \sin(n\pi x), \sin(m\pi x) \rangle_{L^2(0,1)} = \int_0^1 \sin(n\pi x) \sin(m\pi x) dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } n \neq m \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}. \quad (2)$$

It also turns out these eigenfunctions form a complete set in L^2 , that is $\{u_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ is a basis. Thus, for a given $f \in L^2(0, 1)$, there are coefficients a_n such that

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n u_n(x) \quad (3)$$

where the convergence is in $\|\cdot\|_{L^2(0,1)}$. The solution u of $Lu = f$ can also be written as a linear combination of u_n ,

$$u(x) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \beta_n u_n(x) \quad (4)$$

We can use orthogonality of u_n to explicitly compute a_n , and we obtain

$$a_n = 2 \langle f(x), u_n(x) \rangle_{L^2(0,1)} \quad (5)$$

Finally, we have

$$L \left[\sum \beta_n u_n(x) \right] = \sum a_n u_n(x), \quad (6)$$

and we exploit orthogonality again, taking an inner product of both sides with u_m , and we obtain

$$\beta_n = -\frac{a_n}{(n\pi)^2} \quad \text{for } n = 1, 2, \dots \quad (7)$$

In 2-D, it is the same basic idea. We have $\nabla^2 u = u_{xx} + u_{yy} = f$ on $(0, 1) \times (0, 1)$ with $u(x, y) = 0$ on the boundary. The eigenfunctions are given by

$$u_{n,m}(x) = \sin(n\pi x) \sin(m\pi y) \quad \text{for } n, m = 1, 2, \dots \quad (8)$$

with eigenvalues $\lambda_{n,m} = -(n^2 + m^2)\pi^2$. The remaining calculations of the general solution to $\nabla^2 u = f$ for any $f \in L^2((0, 1)^2)$ are similar to the solution in 1-D.

2 Methods of Solving PDEs Numerically

2.1 Finite Differences

Given a PDE, a domain Ω , and boundary conditions, we take the following steps:

- 1) Discretize the Domain Ω , that is, represent Ω by a set of points. For example, draw a grid and the points are at the intersections and at the boundary.
- 2) Represent functions by values at those points.
- 3) Use discrete values to approximate derivatives using algebraic formulas

The result, assuming the PDE is linear, is an algebraic equation of the form

$$A\bar{u} = \bar{b}. \quad (9)$$

2.2 Finite Elements

Reformulate the problem as a variational problem. Rather than solving $\nabla^2 u = f$, define the functional F by

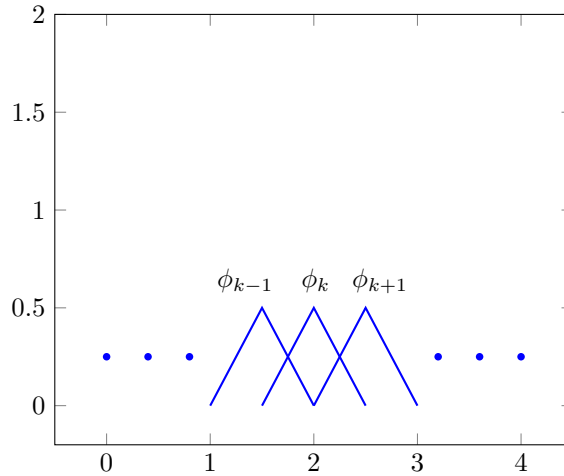
$$F(u) := \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{2} \nabla u \cdot \nabla u + u f dx. \quad (10)$$

The minimizer of F also solves $\nabla^2 u = f$ (using the Euler-Lagrange equation). So we want to find $u \in S$ to minimize F where S is the space of “admissible” functions.

Now let’s discretize the function space, i.e. choose a subset of the basis elements of S to represent S . Define this subset S_h , where $\dim S_h = N < \infty$. Then for any $u_h \in S_h$,

$$u_h(x) = \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \phi_k(x) \quad (11)$$

A good basis $\{\phi_k\}_{k=1}^N$ for S_h are tent functions with small overlap, for example,



It turns out S_h is the space of “connect-the-dot” functions (piecewise linear functions). Then we can approximate a function $u \in L^2$ by its closest representation using the basis $\{\phi_k\}_{k=1}^N$, i.e.

$$u(x) \approx u_h(x) := \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \phi_k(x). \quad (12)$$

The projection theorem tells us there are unique $\{a_k\}$ such that $\|u - u_h\|_{L^2}$ is minimized.

Anyway, this looks a lot like finite differences, but is philosophically different: the function space is discretized, but not the domain.

Finally, we can solve a minimization problem on S_h . What does $F(u_h)$ look like?

$$F(u_h) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^N A_{i,j} a_i a_j + \sum_{i=1}^N b_i a_i \quad (13)$$

where

$$A_{i,j} = \int_{\Omega} \nabla \phi_i \cdot \nabla \phi_j dx \quad \text{and} \quad b_i = \int_{\Omega} f(x) \phi_i(x) dx \quad (14)$$

and a_i are unknown. To minimize this expression with respect to $\{a_1, \dots, a_N\}$, we take partial derivatives with respect to each a_i , i.e. $\nabla[a_1, \dots, a_N]$, and set it equal to zero. However,

$$\nabla F = 0 \implies A\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{b}, \quad (15)$$

which is a linear system. It turns out that for very simple problems, this is identical to the linear system we achieve using finite differences.

Note that we chose a locally-supported since this gives rise to a sparse matrix A , which is easier to solve than arbitrary systems.

2.3 Spectral Methods

We can use a representation of u , i.e.

$$u_h(x) = \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \phi_k(x) \quad (16)$$

where ϕ_k are known functions (not limiting ourselves to locally-supported ϕ_k), for example, take $\phi_k = \sin k\pi x$. From here,

- 1) Solve the variational problem (but A is not sparse - computationally expensive)
- 2) For a set of points $\{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$ in the domain Ω , solve $\nabla^2 u x_i = f(x_i)$. That is, actually solve the PDE on the grid points (spectral collocation, which is a generalization of the finite differences method).

Thus, again, we have

$$\sum_{j=1}^N a_j \phi_j(x_i) \quad \text{for } i, j = 1, 2, \dots, N. \quad (17)$$

And once again we get a linear system:

$$A_{ij} = \phi_j''(x_i), \quad (18)$$

The main problems of this method are

- In general, the matrix A is dense, not sparse