

1 Multi-Element Case

- We've seen the undeformed single-element case already, with $\Omega = \hat{\Omega} = [-1, 1]^2$, and the deformed single-element case.
- We now turn to spectral elements, where Ω consists of multiple deformed spectral subdomains,

$$\Omega = \bigcup_{e=1}^E \Omega^e. \quad (1)$$

- Here, the energy inner product simply becomes the integral over all elements,

$$a(v, u) := \int_{\Omega} \nabla v \cdot \nabla u \, d\mathbf{x} = \sum_{e=1}^E \int_{\Omega^e} \nabla v \cdot \nabla u \, d\mathbf{x}. \quad (2)$$

- Given that we know how to integrate over one element, we now know how to integrate over all of Ω and we are almost ready to implement the variational statement for the Poisson problem,

Find $u \in X_0^N$ such that, for all $v \in X_0^N$,

$$a(v, u) = (v, f). \quad (3)$$

- It will be helpful to introduce some spaces.
- Let \mathcal{L}^2 denote the set of square-integrable functions on Ω ,

$$\mathcal{L}^2 := \{v \mid \int_{\Omega} v^2 dV < \infty\}. \quad (4)$$

- Let \mathcal{H}^1 denote the set of functions in \mathcal{L}^2 whose gradient is also square-integrable,

$$\mathcal{H}^1 := \{v \in \mathcal{L}^2 \mid \int_{\Omega} \nabla v \cdot \nabla v dV < \infty\}. \quad (5)$$

- Practically, we think of \mathcal{H}^1 as the space of continuous functions, C^0 , which is a subset of \mathcal{H}^1 .
- We are particularly interested in an important subspace, namely, \mathcal{H}_0^1 , which is the space of functions in \mathcal{H}^1 that vanish on the domain boundary wherever Dirichlet conditions are applied,

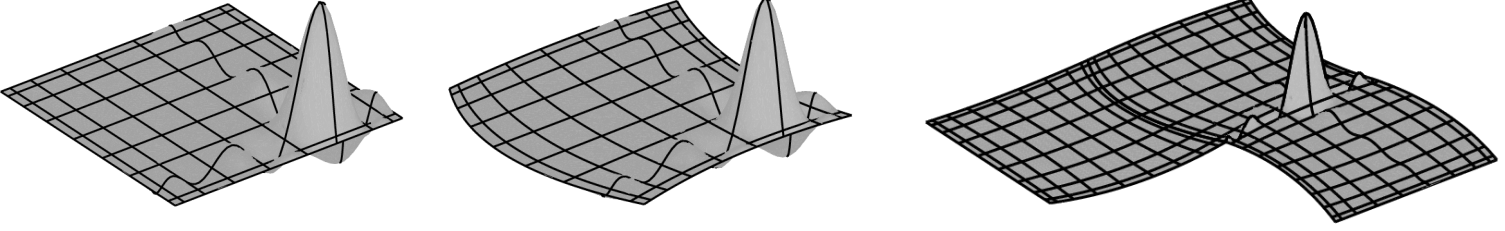
$$\mathcal{H}_0^1 := \{v \in \mathcal{H}^1 \mid v = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega_D\}. \quad (6)$$

- The continuous weak form for the Poisson equation reads *Find $\tilde{u} \in \mathcal{H}_0^1$ such that, for all $v \in \mathcal{H}_0^1$,*

$$a(v, \tilde{u}) = (v, f). \quad (7)$$

- Our goal is to find a *continuous* $u(\mathbf{x}) \approx \tilde{u}$.

- As in the mono-domain case, we can think of functions in the SEM as *basis functions*.



- In particular, on element Ω^e , we will have

$$v(\mathbf{x})|_{\Omega^e} = \sum_{p=0}^N \sum_{q=0}^N l_p(r) l_q(s) v_{pq}^e \in \mathbb{P}_N(r, s) \quad (8)$$

$$u(\mathbf{x})|_{\Omega^e} = \sum_{i=0}^N \sum_{j=0}^N l_i(r) l_j(s) u_{ij}^e \quad (9)$$

$$\mathbf{x}|_{\Omega^e} = \sum_{i=0}^N \sum_{j=0}^N l_i(r) l_j(s) \mathbf{x}_{ij}^e. \quad (10)$$

- Define

$$\hat{X}^N := \{v|_{\Omega^e} \in \mathbb{P}_N(r, s), e = 1 : E\} \subset \mathcal{L}^2(\Omega) \quad (11)$$

$$X^N := \{v \in \hat{X}^N \mid v \in \mathcal{H}^1\} \subset \mathcal{H}^1(\Omega) \quad (12)$$

$$X_0^N := \{v \in X^N \mid v = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega_D\} \subset \mathcal{H}_0^1(\Omega) \quad (13)$$

- The key point is that functions in X_0^N are

– *representable* in our SEM basis $(\in \hat{X}^N)$

– *continuous* $(\in X^N)$

– *vanishing on $\partial\Omega_D$* $(\in X_0^N)$

- To cast our variational statement into matrix form we introduce the following notation.

$$\underline{u}^e = \begin{pmatrix} u_{00}^e \\ u_{10}^e \\ \vdots \\ u_{NN}^e \end{pmatrix} \quad - \quad \text{local basis coefficients on } \Omega^e$$

$$\underline{u}_L = \begin{pmatrix} \underline{u}^1 \\ \underline{u}^2 \\ \vdots \\ \underline{u}^E \end{pmatrix} \quad - \quad \text{unassembled set of local basis coefficients}$$

$$\bar{\underline{u}} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_{\bar{n}} \end{pmatrix} \quad - \quad \text{set of global (aka nodal) basis coefficients, including boundary nodes}$$

$$\underline{u} = R\bar{\underline{u}} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{pmatrix} \quad - \quad \text{interior-only nodal values.}$$

- *Note:* Generally one simply defines $\underline{u} = R\bar{u}$.
 - It's not typical that $R = [I \ O]$.
 - We will not usually expect $\underline{u} = [\bar{u}_1 \ \bar{u}_2 \ \dots \ \bar{u}_n]^T$.
- With these definitions and (as a reminder),

$$v(\mathbf{x})|_{\Omega^e} = \sum_{p=0}^N \sum_{q=0}^N l_p(r)l_q(s)v_{pq}^e \in \mathbb{P}_N(r, s)$$

$$u(\mathbf{x})|_{\Omega^e} = \sum_{i=0}^N \sum_{j=0}^N l_i(r)l_j(s)u_{ij}^e$$

$$\mathbf{x}|_{\Omega^e} = \sum_{i=0}^N \sum_{j=0}^N l_i(r)l_j(s)\mathbf{x}_{ij}^e,$$

our unknowns are the local basis coefficients, \underline{u}_L .

- Given these, we can reconstruct approximation solutions on each Ω^e and, hence, on all of Ω .

- For *any* $v, u \in \hat{X}^N$,

$$a(v, u) = \sum_{e=1}^E \int_{\Omega^e} \nabla v \cdot \nabla u \, d\mathbf{x} \quad (14)$$

$$= \sum_{e=1}^E (\underline{v}^e)^T A^e \underline{u}^e \quad (15)$$

$$= \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \underline{v}^1 \\ \underline{v}^2 \\ \vdots \\ \underline{v}^e \\ \vdots \\ \underline{v}^E \end{pmatrix}^T}_{\underline{v}_L^T} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} A^1 & & & \\ & A^2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & A^e & \\ & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & A^E \end{pmatrix}}_{A_L} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \underline{u}^1 \\ \underline{u}^2 \\ \vdots \\ \underline{u}^e \\ \vdots \\ \underline{u}^E \end{pmatrix}}_{\underline{u}_L} \quad (16)$$

$$= \underline{v}_L^T A_L \underline{u}_L. \quad (17)$$

- A_L is the *unassembled* system matrix

- A^e is the *local* system matrix, which we've seen in the monodomain case,

$$A^e = \frac{2}{L_x^e} \left(\hat{B} \otimes \hat{A} \right) + \frac{2}{L_y^e} \left(\hat{A} \otimes \hat{B} \right) \quad \text{if } \Omega^e = L_x \times L_y \text{ rectangle} \quad (18)$$

$$A^e = \mathbf{D}^T \mathbf{G}^e \mathbf{D} \quad \text{for general geometries,} \quad (19)$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{I} \otimes \hat{D} \\ \hat{D} \otimes \hat{I} \end{pmatrix}, \quad G_{ij}^e|_{\xi_p \xi_q} = \sum_{k=1}^d \left(\frac{\partial r_i}{\partial x_k^e} \frac{\partial r_j}{\partial x_k^e} \right) \Big|_{\xi_p \xi_q} \quad (20)$$

- In a similar fashion, we have for all $v, f \in \hat{X}^N$,

$$(v, f) = \underline{v}_L^T B_L \underline{f}_L \quad (21)$$

$$B_L = \text{block-diag}(B^e) \quad (\text{diagonal matrix}) \quad (22)$$

$$B^e = \frac{L_x^e L_y^e}{4} \left(\hat{B} \otimes \hat{B} \right) \quad \text{if } \Omega^e = L_x \times L_y \text{ rectangle} \quad (23)$$

$$B^e = \mathcal{J}^e \left(\hat{B} \otimes \hat{B} \right) \quad \text{for general geometries.} \quad (24)$$

- The key point is that we already know how to evaluate all of the operators.
- In fact, that is the central operation for *matrix-free* forms, which are needed for timestepping and for iterative solvers.
- There is one more novel item that we need, and it relates to ensuring that our solution is continuous, $u \in X^N \subset \hat{X}^N$.

- The easiest way to ensure that $u \in X^N \subset \mathcal{H}^1$ is to require that $u(\mathbf{x})$ is continuous.
- Thus, for any two elements Ω^e and $\Omega^{\hat{e}}$,

$$\mathbf{x}_{ij}^e = \mathbf{x}_{i,\hat{j}}^{\hat{e}} \implies u_{ij}^e = u_{i,\hat{j}}^{\hat{e}}. \quad (25)$$

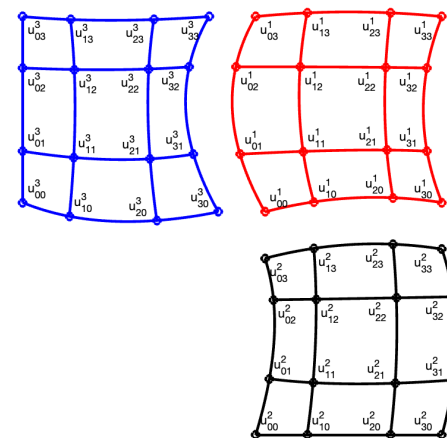
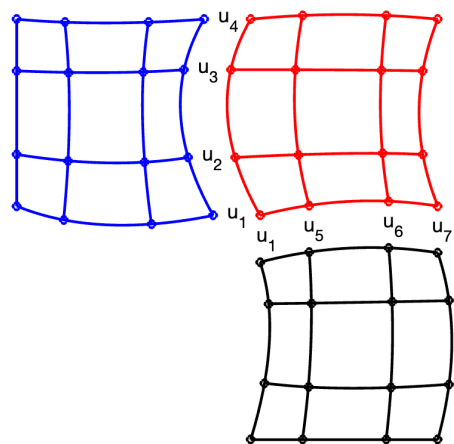
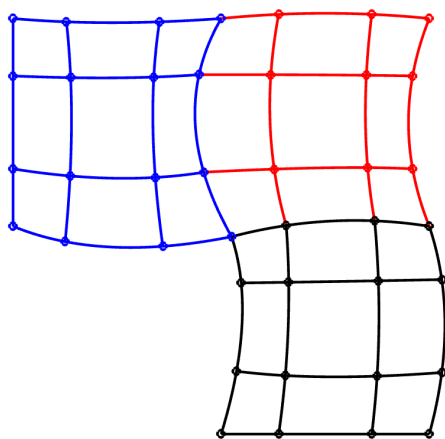
- Imposition of function continuity follows just as it did with the periodic restriction/prolongation operator.
- There, we let $Q = R^T$ be the operator that mapped from the *necessary* unknown coefficients to the *representation* coefficients.
- At that point, we had some discussion as to whether the operator should be called R^T or Q , with the former being associated with boundary conditions and the latter associated with function continuity.
- Here, we will need both, distinct, operators.

- Let Q be a rectangular $N_L \times \bar{n}$ Boolean matrix a single “1” on each of $N_L = E(N + 1)^d$ rows.
- The number of columns of Q is equal to the number of unique vertices.
- Application of Q to a vector, $\underline{\bar{u}}$, yields a local vector,

$$\underline{u}_L = Q\underline{\bar{u}}, \tag{26}$$

such that entries in \underline{u}_L are *copies* of data in $\underline{\bar{u}}$.

- By having redundant values stored along shared edges, we know that the function representation associated with $\underline{u}_L = Q\underline{\bar{u}}$ is *continuous* ($\in X^N$).
- An example is illustrated in the figures above and below.



- **Q:** How many columns does Q have in this case?
How many rows?

- As in the monodomain case, if $u(\mathbf{x}) \in X_0^N$, there exists a rectangular restriction matrix R such that $\underline{u} = R^T \underline{u}$ will be zero for all nodes $\mathbf{x}_i \in \partial\Omega_D$.
- The full Laplacian matrix for the SEM is thus,

$$A = R \underbrace{Q^T A_L Q}_{\bar{A}} R^T \quad (27)$$

- We refer to A_L as the *unassembled* Laplacian matrix and \bar{A} as the *assembled Neumann operator*.
- It has a null space corresponding to the constant function.
- In a similar fashion, the mass matrix and discrete convection operator are

$$B = R \underbrace{Q^T B_L Q}_{\bar{B}} R^T, \quad C = R \underbrace{Q^T C_L Q}_{\bar{C}} R^T, \quad (28)$$

where $B_L = \text{block-diagonal}(B^e)$ and $C_L = \text{block-diagonal}(C^e)$, with B^e and C^e the element-based counterparts to (??) and (??), respectively.

- We remark that the factor QR^T on the right of each of (27)–(28) results from $u \in X^N(Q)$ and $u \in X_0^N \subset X^N(R^T)$, whereas the prefactor RQ^T results from the test functions v being in the same space.
- The governing mathematics/physics dictates the contents of the block-diagonal matrices, A_L , B_L , and C_L , which are sandwiched between these operators.
- It is thus relatively easy to construct new operators provided that one understands the constraints on spaces for the test (v) and trial (u) functions.
- Since we know how to *apply* the operators, we also know how to *solve* the relevant systems given that we will use iterative methods.

- It is somewhat remarkable that the SEM works, i.e., that we get exponential convergence even though our basis functions are only C^0 continuous.
- Why is the convergence so fast?
- It has to do with the fact that, for smooth solutions, our *approximation* is converging exponentially fast on *each* local subdomain.
- High-order continuity is not requisite.
- If the solution is C^∞ , we will converge exponentially fast to that solution.
- Note that our derivatives are *not* continuous.
- The jump, however, goes to zero exponentially fast with N .

- Some comments about data structures.
- We generally like to keep things in *local representation*, \underline{u}_L , which allows us to trivially evaluate gradients, integrals, etc.
- This form is convenient for parallel computing.
- It does change, however, how one implements a matrix-vector product of the form $\underline{w} = A\underline{u}$.
- Assuming that \underline{u}_L denotes a function that is already in X_0^N , we would modify the matrix-vector product as

$$\underline{w} = A\underline{u} = RQ^T A_L Q R^T \underline{u} \quad (29)$$

$$\underline{w}_L = QR^T RQ^T A_L QR^T \underline{u} \quad (30)$$

$$= QR^T RQ^T A_L \underline{u}_L \quad (31)$$

- Note that $M := R^T R$ is a diagonal *mask* matrix comprising 1s and 0s on the diagonal, with 0 for any points on $\partial\Omega_D$.
- Its action is to zero out any Dirichlet values.
- We can also zero out when the data is in its *local* representation by defining a diagonal matrix $M_L \in \mathbb{R}^{n_L \times n_L}$, where $n_L = E(N+1)^d$.

- The matrix-vector product then becomes

$$\underline{w}_L = QR^T RQ^T A_L QR^T \underline{u} \quad (32)$$

$$= M_L QQ^T A_L \underline{u}_L. \quad (33)$$

- QQ^T ensures that “ $A\underline{u}$ ” is in \mathcal{H}^1 and M_L assures that \underline{w}_L is in \mathcal{H}_0^1 , which is what we require.
- It is important to recognize that we can apply conjugate gradients to vectors in $\mathcal{R}(M_L)$ because it is a *projector*.
- As long as the rhs is in $\mathcal{R}(M_L)$, all of the Krylov search directions will also be in $\mathcal{R}(M_L)$ and the iteration will converge.

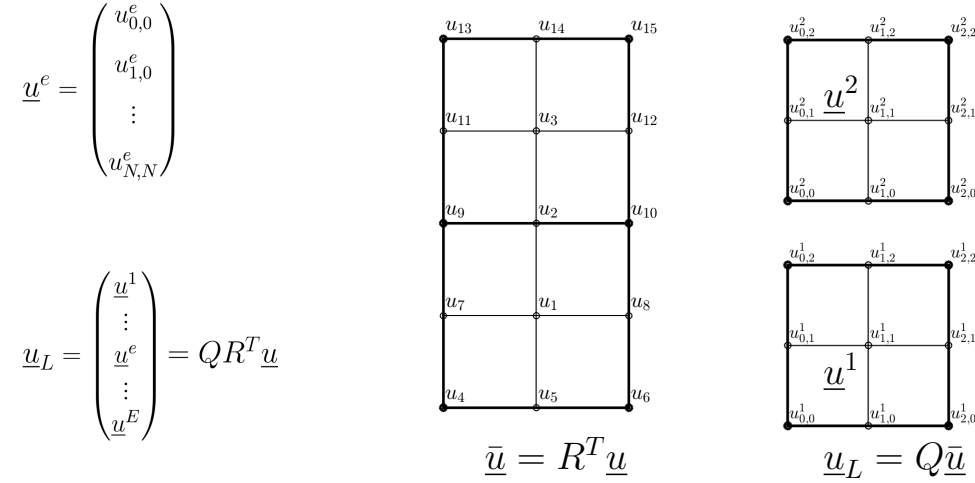


Figure 1: Illustration of $\underline{u}_L = Q \bar{u} = Q R^T \underline{u}$ for $(E, N) = (2, 2)$: (center) $\underline{u} = [u_1 \ u_2 \ u_3]^T$ is the set of active (interior) basis coefficients; $\bar{u} = [u_1 \ \dots \ u_{15}]^T = R^T \underline{u}$ is the set of all global basis coefficients, extended by zero to the domain boundary; (right) $\underline{u}_L = Q \bar{u}$ is the set of local basis coefficients represented element-by-element (i.e., as \underline{u}^e , $e=1, \dots, E$). For any $u \in X_0^N \subset \mathcal{H}_0^1$, all representations contain the same information.

- The easiest way to ensure that $u \in X^N \subset \mathcal{H}^1$ is to require that $u(\mathbf{x})$ is continuous.
- For any two elements Ω^e and $\Omega^{\hat{e}}$,

$$\mathbf{x}_{ij}^e = \mathbf{x}_{i,\hat{j}}^{\hat{e}} \implies u_{ij}^e = u_{i,\hat{j}}^{\hat{e}}. \quad (34)$$

- Imposition of continuity for functions in X^N is accomplished by assigning a global numbering, $i_g = g_{i,j}^e$ for each vertex $i, j \in \{0, \dots, N\}^2$ in each element, $e = 1, \dots, E$.
- Vertex pairs (or triplets, etc.) satisfying (34) are assigned the same global index, i_g .
- For example, in Fig. 1, we have $i_g = 2$ for $\mathbf{x}_{1,2}^1$ and $\mathbf{x}_{1,0}^2$.
- The global index is $g_{1,2}^1 = g_{1,0}^2 = 2$.

- From the global numbering, one can construct a Boolean matrix Q such that the set of basis coefficients $\underline{u}_L = Q\underline{\bar{u}}$ represents a C^0 -continuous function $u(\mathbf{x})$, where $\underline{\bar{u}}$ is the vector of globally- (i.e., uniquely) numbered coefficients, including the boundary values.
- Assume that there are \bar{n} contiguously-numbered global vertices, $i_g \in \bar{\mathcal{I}} := \{1, \dots, \bar{n}\}$, and let $k = 1 + i + (N + 1)j + (N + 1)^2(e - 1) \in \{1, \dots, E(N + 1)^2\}$ represent a lexicographical indexing of the local degrees-of-freedom (dofs), $\{u_{ij}^e\}$.
- Then the k th row of Q will be $\hat{e}_{i_g}^T$, where $i_g = g_{ij}^e$ and \hat{e}_{i_g} is the i_g th column of the $\bar{n} \times \bar{n}$ identity matrix.
- Note that the action of Q is to *copy* (scatter) values of a global vector to their local counterparts.
- (In Fig. 1, compare the center panel, $\underline{\bar{u}}$, to the right panel, $\underline{u}_L = Q\underline{\bar{u}}$.)
- Conversely, application of Q^T *sums* (gathers) local contributions to their global counterparts.
- Thus, the action of QQ^T is equivalent to an exchange-and-sum of values among shared dofs (sometimes referred to as direct-stiffness summation [Strang & Fix, '73]).
- This gather-scatter operation is the communication intensive phase of parallel operator evaluation.
- Note that, in contrast to high-order finite difference stencils, the SEM/FEM stencil depth is unity—one only needs to pass surface data between subdomain interfaces, rather than multiple layers of data.
- In this sense, SEM operator evaluation is *communication minimal*.