

Lecture 4

January 27, 2020

Last week: We calculated some *a posteriori* error estimates

$$\|u - u_h\|_{H^1(\Omega)} \leq C \cdot \underbrace{\text{computable from } u_h}_{\text{see slides for calculation}}$$
$$\implies \frac{1}{\sqrt{C+1}} \|u - u_h\|_{H^1} \leq \sup_{\|v\|_{H^1}=1} R(v) \leq \|u - u_h\|_{H^1}$$

These estimates allow us to create fast adaptive algorithms.

$$\eta(\Delta)^2 = h_\Delta^2 \int_\Delta f^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{E \subseteq \partial\Delta} h_E \int_E \left[\left[\frac{\partial u_n}{\partial n} \right] \right]^2$$

Here η is the error in Δ . We refine the computation where $\eta(\Delta)$ is “big”.

1 Adaptive Algorithms

Adaptive Algorithm:

1. Start from a very coarse discretisation (mesh)
2. Solve the FEM equation $A\vec{c} = \vec{F}$
3. Compute $\eta(\Delta)$ for all Δ
4. Refine those Δ where $\eta(\Delta)$ is “big”
 - (a) Mark Δ where $\eta(\Delta)$ is big \longleftarrow *Supply a criterion*
 - (b) Refine those Δ \longleftarrow *Supply a refinement procedure*

Adaptive algorithms converge faster than standard uniform mesh refinement.

Question: Why should narrow triangles be avoided?

- Narrow triangles are not good because the long edge dominates the error estimate, and the short edge causes the linear algebra problem to be ill-conditioned, thus difficult to solve. This means our adaptive algorithm must avoid creating long/narrow triangles. This is done a priori.

Question: When is adaptive FEM not a good idea?

- If the solution is smooth, a uniform mesh will be fine. Using the adaptive algorithm means wasting time calculating unnecessary error estimates.
- If the PDE is inhomogeneous sometimes deriving the error estimates is very difficult or expensive to calculate.

Question: What if the boundary is curved?

- Naive: Refine the mesh close to $\partial\Omega$

- Use a polynomials for the basis functions rather than a linear basis.

Up Next: Abstract framework for FEM: in arbitrary dimension, for arbitrary (elliptic) PDEs, in a functional analytic framework, repeating what we've seen in 1D. In particular:

$$\int_{\Omega} (\partial_x u)(\partial_x v) := a(u, v) \underbrace{=}_{\text{FE eq.}} \int_{\Omega} f v := f(v)$$

In higher dimensions. we will study

$$a(u, v) := \int_{\Omega} \nabla u \cdot \nabla v = \int_{\Omega} f v := f(v) \quad \forall v \in H,$$

corresponding to $-\Delta u = f$.

2 General Setup for Finite Elements

Let H be a Hilbert space i.e. a vector space with a scalar product $\langle u, v \rangle_H$ such that

$$\langle u, u \rangle_H^{\frac{1}{2}} := \|u\|_H,$$

defines a norm and H is complete (important when studying convergence). Think: $H = H_0^1(\Omega)$ the space of functions in which the PDE solution lies. Also let $H_h \subseteq H$ be a finite dimensional subspace – think piecewise linear continuous functions associated to a discretisation of Ω /. In 1D, splitting Ω into intervals, in 2D, splitting in to triangles.

$$\text{PDE: } a(u, v) = f(v) \quad \forall v \in H$$

$$\text{FE eq. : } a(u_h, v_h) = f(v_h) \quad \forall v_h \in H_h$$

2.1 What does this mean?

What is $a(\cdot, \cdot)$?

- It is a bilinear form, $a : H \times H \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (or \mathbb{C}).

$$\begin{aligned} a(\lambda u_1 + \mu u_2, v) &= \lambda a(u_1, v) + \mu a(u_2, v) \\ a(u, \lambda v_1 + \mu v_2) &= \dots \quad \forall u, v, u_1, u_2, v_1, v_2 \in H, \forall \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

- It's continuous

$$|a(u, v)| \leq C \|u\|_H \|v\|_H$$

In 1D:

$$\left| \int_{\Omega} (\partial_x u)(\partial_x v) \right| \underbrace{\leq}_{\text{C-S}\neq} \left(\int_{\Omega} (\partial_x u)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\int_{\Omega} (\partial_x v)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq \|u\|_{H^1} \|v\|_{H^1} \quad \forall u, v \in H$$

- It is coercive:

$$a(u, u) \geq \alpha \|u\|_{H^1}^2 \quad \forall u \in H$$

In 1D:

$$a(u, u) = \int_{\Omega} (\partial_x u)^2 \underset{\text{P-F}}{\geq} \frac{C}{2} \int_{\Omega} u^2 + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} (\partial_x u)^2 \geq \alpha \|u\|_{H^1},$$

where $\alpha = \min(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{C}{2})$

What is f ?

The function f is linear and continuous, $f : H \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

2.2 How well is the solution to $a(u, v) = f(v)$ approximated by the FE equation?

Examples

1.

$$a(u, v) = \int_{\Omega} (\partial_x u)(\partial_x v) \quad \text{in } \Omega = [0, 1]$$

- $H = H_0^1(\Omega)$, H_h piecewise linear continuous functions
- Continuity \leftarrow C-S inequality
- Coercivity \leftarrow P-F inequality
- Continuity of f

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\Omega} f v \right| &\leq \left(\int_{\Omega} f^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\int_{\Omega} v^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \|f\|_{L^2} \|v\|_{L^2} \\ &\leq \|f\|_{L^2} \|v\|_{H^1} = C \|v\|_{H^1} \end{aligned}$$

So continuous if $f \in L^2$ (or if $f \in H^{-1}(\Omega)$).

2. In higher dimensions,

$$a(u, v) := \int_{\Omega} \nabla u \cdot \nabla v = \int_{\Omega} f v := f(v) \quad \forall v \in H,$$

where

$$H = H_0^1(\Omega) = \{v \in L^2(\Omega), \partial_{x_j} v \in L^2(\Omega) \forall j\}.$$

Members of this set are called “*functions of finite energy*”, and the energy norm is

$$\|u\|_H = \left[\|u\|_{L^2(\Omega)}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n \|\partial_{x_j} u\|_{L^2(\Omega)}^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

H_h is any subspace of H of finite dimension. The choice of subspace is motivated by knowledge of the solution or ease of implementation. For example if you’re solving a wave equation, you may choose \cos and \sin as basis functions; if the solution has kinks a linear functions will be better; or if the solution is smooth, you could use high order polynomials. Usually we do not think of H_h as fixed but consider a family $\{H_h\}_{h \in I \subseteq (0, \infty)}$ of subspaces of H such that $H_{h_1} \supseteq H_{h_2}$ whenever $h_1 \leq h_2$.

$$\bigcup_{h \in I} H_h \text{ is dense in } H$$

For the theory, think of spaces of functions, not of meshes/discretisations.

- Continuity

$$\|a(u, v)\| = \left| \int_{\Omega} \nabla u \cdot \nabla v \right| \leq \left(\int_{\Omega} (\nabla u)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\int_{\Omega} (\nabla v)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq \|u\|_{H^1} \|v\|_{H^1}$$

- Coercivity

$$a(u, u) = \int_{\Omega} (\nabla u)^2 \geq \alpha \|u\|_{H^1}^2$$

which follows from a higher dimensional P-F inequality.

- Continuity of f follows from C-S inequality.

Does the bilinear form above actually still relate to a PDE?

Theorem 1. $u \in H_0^1(\Omega)$ solves $a(u, v) = f(v) \forall v \in H_0^1(\Omega)$ if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} -\Delta u &= f \text{ in } \Omega \\ u &= 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Identical to the 1D case, using Green's theorem. □

This is not restricted to the diffusion equation, we could add more terms. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be positive definite. Then the theorem becomes

$$\begin{aligned} a(u, v) &= \int_{\Omega} (A(x)\nabla u) \cdot \nabla v + b(x)uv + \vec{c}(\nabla u)v = f(v) \forall v \in H_0^1(\Omega) \\ \iff -\nabla(A(x)\nabla u) + \vec{c}\nabla u + bu &= f \text{ in } \Omega \\ u &= 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega \end{aligned}$$

If $a(\cdot, \cdot)$ is coercive, this places large restrictions on $b(x), c$. However we actually only require the highest order part of the operator to be coercive. For now, we assume all of $a(\cdot, \cdot)$ is coercive. Could extend theory to

$$a(u, v) = \underbrace{a_1(v, u)}_{\text{coercive}} + \underbrace{a_2(u, v)}_{\text{compact}}.$$

In this abstract setting, one obtains

Theorem 2 (Cea's Lemma). Let $u \in H$ be the solution to $a(u, v) = f(v) \forall v \in H$ and $u_h \in H_h$ be the solution to $a(u_h, v_h) = f(v_h) \forall v_h \in H_h$. Then

$$\|u - u_h\|_H \leq C \inf_{v_h \in H_h} \|u - v_h\|_H.$$

That is, the FE error is less than a constant times the error of the best possible approximation.

If $\bigcup H_h$ is dense in H , the right hand side tends to 0 as $h \rightarrow 0$ and the method converges.

Next Week: Implementation of FEM

After that: Lax-Milgram and proof of Cea's Lemma