Galerkin method

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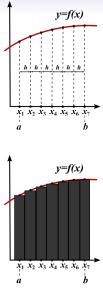
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Analytic representation of a function

What we have done previously is that we represented a function (an unknown solution of a differential equation of an eigenvalue problem) as an array of points on a discrete grid.

You can think about this from a different pespective. Essentially we represent the function as a combination of bins. If you define a bin as a sharp square function $b_i(x)$ then f(x) can be represented as a linear combination of such functions:

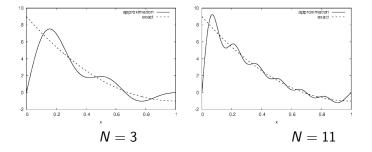
$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} c_i b_i(x), \quad b_i(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x_i - rac{h}{2} < x < x_i + rac{h}{2} \\ 0, & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 $c_i = f(x_i)$



Analytic representation of a function

What if instead of square bins we use some other basis functions? Indeed, this is what we do when we represent a function as a truncated Fourier series. Obviously the more the terms we use in the Fourier series the better it approximates our function on a given interval.

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{N} c_i \sin((i+1)\pi x)$$



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Analytic representation of a function

The question is: how do we choose coefficients c_i ? What are our criteria? There may be different choices that give the resulting approximation that in some way can be considered close to f(x).

When we solve a linear differential equation with an unknown function f(x), e.g.

$$Lf(x)=g(x),$$

we have the left and right hand sides of it. If we approximate f(x) as

$$f_{\mathrm{appr}}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} c_i \varphi_i(x),$$

then we can require that the left hand side deviates from the right hand side as little as possible. That is, the residual

$$r(x) \equiv L f_{\mathrm{appr}} - g$$

is minimized. What does it mean "minimized"? There may be different "measures" of it.

Inner product of functions

For further discussion we need to define the inner product of two functions p(x) and q(x) on a given interval/domain

$$\langle p|q\rangle = \int\limits_{a}^{b} p(x)^{*}q(x)dx,$$

where the asterix (*) stands for complex conjugation. In many situations we deal with real functions so complex conjugation operation is not needed.

Another important concept is the orthogonality of two functions. Functions p(x) and q(x) are orthogonal if

$$\langle p|q\rangle = \langle q|p\rangle = 0.$$

Galerkin orthogonality

Since we have a set of N basis functions φ_i at our disposal we may require that the residual $r(x) = Lf_{appr} - g$ is orthogonal to the subspace spanned by $\{\varphi_i\}$. In other words, r(x) should be orthogonal to each φ_i . This property is the Galerkin orthogonality.

This yields a system of equations:

$$\langle \varphi_j | r \rangle = 0, \qquad j = 1, \dots, N$$

or

$$\langle \varphi_j | L \sum_{i=1}^N c_i \varphi_i - g \rangle = 0, \qquad j = 1, \dots, N$$

which is equivalent to a system of N linear algebraic equations:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} c_{i} \underbrace{\langle \varphi_{j} | L\varphi_{i} \rangle}_{A_{ji}} = \underbrace{\langle \varphi_{j} | g \rangle}_{b_{j}}, \qquad j = 1, \dots, N$$
$$Ac = b$$

Choice of basis

The most important issue of the Galerkin type methods is the choice of the choice of an appropriate basis $\{\varphi_i\}$, $i = 1 \dots N$

- The basis should be good enough to represent the solution accurately (at least in the domain where we are interested)
- It should provide systematic convergence if we increase N (i.e. the basis should be complete)
- It should satisfy the boundary conditions of the problem
- All "inner products" (i.e. integrals A_{ji} and b_j) with basis functions {φ_i} should be computable and these computations should be numerically efficient.

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Let us solve the differential equation

$$Lf(x) = f''(x) + f(x) = 2x(x-1),$$

with the boundary conditions y(0) = 0 and y(1) = 0. Let us choose an appropriate basis, N = 3:

$$\varphi_1(x) = x(1-x), \qquad \varphi_2(x) = x^2(1-x)^2, \qquad \varphi_3(x) = x^3(1-x)^3.$$

Each basis function satisfy the above boundary conditions, so their linear combination will obviously satisfy them too. Our trial (i.e. approximate) solution is then

$$f_{\mathrm{appr}}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{3} c_i \varphi_i(x).$$

We substitute the trial function into

$$\langle \varphi_j | r
angle = \int_0^1 \varphi_j(x) \left[L f_{\mathrm{appr}}(x) - g(x) \right] dx = 0,$$

$$\int_0^1 \varphi_j(x) \left[f_{\text{appr}}''(x) + f_{\text{appr}}(x) - 2x(x-1) \right] dx = 0$$

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If we do the integrals and some algebra, that yields the following system of 3 linear equations:

$$\begin{aligned} &-\frac{3}{10}c_1 + \frac{5}{84}c_2 - \frac{4}{315}c_3 &= \frac{1}{15}, \\ &\frac{5}{84}c_1 + \frac{11}{630}c_2 + \frac{61}{13860}c_3 &= -\frac{1}{70}, \\ &-\frac{4}{315}c_1 + \frac{61}{13860}c_2 - \frac{73}{60060}c_3 &= \frac{1}{315}. \end{aligned}$$

which has the following solution:

$$\begin{split} c_1 &= -\frac{1370}{7397} \approx -0.18521, \\ c_2 &= \frac{50688}{273689} \approx 0.185203, \\ c_3 &= -\frac{132}{21053} \approx -0.00626989. \end{split}$$



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Galerkin method can also be used to solve eigenvalue problems. Let us consider the Schrödinger equation for 1D harmonic oscillator:

$$H\Phi_i(x) = E_i \Phi_i(x) \tag{2}$$

where the Hamiltonian is

$$H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V(x).$$
 (3)

and

$$V(x)=\frac{m\omega x^2}{2}.$$

The Ritz theorem says

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle} \ge E_1,$$
(4)

Here E_1 is the exact energy of the ground state. The equality holds if and only if $\psi \equiv \Phi_1$.

 $\psi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} c_i \varphi_i(x).$ (5)

(6)

 ϕ_i 's are basis functions, c_i are the expansion coefficients (linear variational parameters). Minimization with respect to c_k yields the generalized eigenvalue problem:

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$$\mathcal{H}c_{k} = \varepsilon_{k}Sc_{k},$$
$$\mathcal{H}_{ij} = \langle \varphi_{i}|H|\varphi_{j}\rangle, \quad S_{ij} = \langle \varphi_{i}|\varphi_{j}\rangle, \quad c_{k} = \begin{pmatrix} c_{1k} \\ c_{2k} \\ \vdots \\ c_{Nk} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Mini-Max theorem guarantees that

$$\varepsilon_1 \ge E_1, \quad \varepsilon_2 \ge E_2, \quad \dots, \quad \varepsilon_N \ge E_N.$$
 (7)

Use

Gaussian basis functions

$$\varphi_i(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{\alpha_i}{\pi}\right)^{1/2} e^{-\alpha_i(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{s}_i)^2}.$$
(8)

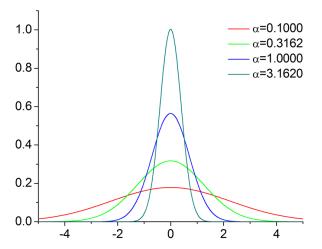
Here α_i and s_i are nonlinear variational parameters. Matrix elements are easily calculable:

$$\langle \varphi_i | \varphi_j \rangle = \left(\frac{2\sqrt{\alpha_i \alpha_j}}{\alpha_i + \alpha_j} \right)^{1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{\alpha_i \alpha_j}{\alpha_i + \alpha_j} (s_i - s_j)^2 \right), \quad (9)$$

$$\langle \varphi_i | -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} | \varphi_j \rangle = \frac{\hbar^2}{m} \frac{\alpha_i \alpha_j}{\alpha_i + \alpha_j} \left(1 - \frac{2\alpha_i \alpha_j}{\alpha_i + \alpha_j} (s_i - s_j)^2 \right) \langle \varphi_i | \varphi_j \rangle, \quad (10)$$

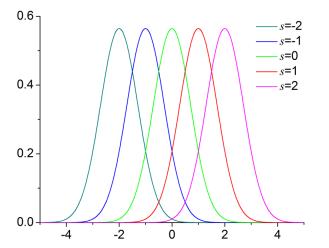
$$\mathcal{V}(x) = \frac{m\omega^2 x^2}{2} : \langle \varphi_i | V(x) | \varphi_j \rangle = \frac{m\omega}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\alpha_i + \alpha_j} + \left(\frac{\alpha_i s_i + \alpha_j s_j}{\alpha_i + \alpha_j} \right)^2 \right) \langle \varphi_i | \varphi_j \rangle. \quad (11)$$

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Normalized Gaussian functions with different α_i .

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Normalized Gaussian functions with different s_i and the same α_i .

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Comparison of the eigenenergies of the quantum harmonic oscillator obtained by using shifted and variable-width Gaussian bases. 101 basis functions were used with some appropriately chosen parameters.

Exact	Shifted	Variable-width
0.5	0.500000000000	0.500000000000
1.5	1.500000000000	
2.5	2.500000000000	2.499999999954
3.5	3.500000000009	
4.5	4.50000000059	4.499999998287
5.5	5.50000001890	
6.5	6.50000005356	6.499999967019
7.5	7.500000161985	
8.5	8.500000213739	8.499997966523
9.5	9.500007221469	

Galerkin method summary

- Could be used to solve linear problems (differential equations, eigenvalue problems)
- Easily generalized to problems in multiple dimensions (even more than 3)
- Requires an appropriate basis
- Basis functions may depend on a set of parameters that can be tuned to make convergence even better