CAPACITANCE MATRIX METHOD
FOR PETROV-GALERKIN PROCEDURE

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1. Introduction

In this paper a capacitance matrix method is developed for the Poisson equation on a rectangle

\[(1-1) \quad Lu \equiv -(u_{xx} + u_{yy}) = f, \quad (x, y) \in \Omega \equiv (0, 1) \times (0, 1)\]

with the homogeneous Dirichlet boundary condition

\[(1-2) \quad u = 0, \quad (x, y) \in \partial \Omega\]

where \(\partial \Omega\) is the boundary of the region \(\Omega\).

This method considered here is an application of the cubic spline method of I. Sloan in [1] to the boundary value problem in two space variables and is basically the discretization of the \(H^1\)-Galerkin method on an \(n \times n\) uniform partition, which is a Petrov-Galerkin procedure using a trial space of bicubic splines, a test space of piecewise-bilinear functions, and the composite Simpson’s 9-point rule or the composite 4-point Gaussian quadrature for the integrals in two dimension. Then the resulting linear system is slightly different from the one which can be solved at the cost of \(O(n^2 \log n)\) by a matrix decomposition method using fast Fourier transforms (FFT). The capacitance matrix method utilizes this special structure to solve the linear system at the cost of \(O(n^3)\), which is not optimal but quite efficient considering that the number of the unknowns is \(n^2\), a quarter of the number of the unknowns in the orthogonal spline collocation. Notice that the existence and the
uniqueness of the approximation for this method follow directly from [1]. The order of convergence will be discussed in section 2.

The method may be viewed as a “quaklocation” approximation (i.e. a quadrature-based modification of the collocation approximation) in [2,3] for the boundary-integral equations on smooth curves. The \( H^1 \)-Galerkin method with Dirichlet boundary conditions was proposed by de Boor [4] and was also analyzed by G. Fairweather [5]. But only the \( O(h^3) \) convergence was obtained in [4]. The modified cubic spline collocation method, an \( O(h^4) \) cubic spline method developed independently by Archer [6] and Daniel and Swartz [7], employs nodal cubic spline collocation for the solution of a higher order perturbation of the differential equation. Another \( O(h^4) \) cubic spline method can be found in Chawla and Subramanian [8].

The practical difficulty in the \( H^1 \)-Galerkin method lies in evaluating the inner products i.e. the integrals. But it can be overcome with ease in this discrete \( H^1 \)-Galerkin procedure, and the matrix in the resulting linear system can be determined once for all for any number \( n \). Furthermore it has a special structure as discussed in section 2. An algorithm involving fast direct method and capacitance matrix technique will be constructed in section 3.

2. Petrov-Galerkin procedure

Given \( n \geq 1 \), let \( \Omega_h \) be a uniform partition of the region \( \Omega \)

\[
\Omega_h = \{(x_i, y_j) \mid x_i = ih, \ y_j = jh, \ i, j = 0, 1, \ldots, n, \ h = 1/n \}.
\]

Let \( S(\Omega_h) \subset C^2(\Omega) \) be the set of bicubic splines defined on the uniform partition \( \Omega_h \) which satisfy the homogeneous boundary condition (1-2). Let \( T(\Omega_h) \) be the set of piecewise-bilinear functions on \( \Omega_h \) which do not satisfy the boundary conditions. Then the discrete \( H^1 \)-Galerkin method of [1] is: find \( u_h \in S(\Omega_h) \) such that

\[
(2-1) \quad < Lu_h, z_h > = < f, z_h >, \quad z_h \in T(\Omega_h),
\]

where

\[
< u, v > = Q_h(uv)
\]
and \( Q_h \) is a quadrature rule. In this paper the composite Simpson's 9-point rule in two dimension, a rule with fourth-order error, for the partition \( \Omega_h \) will be employed, see\[14, \text{chapter } 5]:

\[
Q_h(u) = \frac{h^2}{36} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \left[ u_{ij} + u_{i+1,j} + u_{i,j+1} + u_{i+1,j+1} \right. \\
+ 4\left( u_{i+1/2,j} + u_{i,j+1/2} + u_{i+1,j+1/2} + u_{i+1/2,j+1} \right) + 16u_{i+1/2,j+1/2},
\]

where \( u_{i,j} = u(x_i, y_j) \) and \( x_{i+1/2} = (x_i + x_{i+1})/2 \). The composite 4-point Gauss rule may be employed and the method here can be applied to the resulting system.

To discuss the order of convergence, we notice that it is well known that there exists a positive constant \( \gamma \) such that

\[
(2-2) \quad \|Lu\|_{L^2(\Omega)} \geq \gamma \|u\|_{H^2(\Omega)}
\]

if \( u \) satisfies the boundary conditions (1-2), where \( H^m(\Omega) \) is the Sobolev space equipped with the norm

\[
\|u\|_{H^m(\Omega)} = \left( \sum_{0 \leq |\alpha| \leq m} \|D^\alpha u\|_{L^2(\Omega)}^2 \right)^{1/2}
\]

for any positive integer \( m \). This inequality (2-2), \( u \in H^6(\Omega) \) and a quadrature rule with fourth-order error in (2-1) satisfies the assumptions of theorem 4.1 in [1]. It therefore follows from theorem 4.1 of [1] that (2-1) has a unique solution \( u_h \in S(\Omega_h) \) satisfying

\[
\|u - u_h\|_{H^i(\Omega)} \leq \gamma h^{4-i} \|u\|_{H^6(\Omega)}, \quad i = 0, 1, 2.
\]

Let \( \hat{B}_i(x) \), for \( 0 \leq i \leq n \), be the cubic spline with the support \([x_{i-2}, x_{i+2}]\) in one space variable over the extended partition

\[
x_{-3} < x_{-2} < x_{-1} < x_0 < \cdots < x_n < x_{n+1} < x_{n+2} < x_{n+3},
\]

\[
x_k = kh, \quad k = -3, -2, -1, 0, \ldots, n, n + 1, n + 2, n + 3, \quad h = 1/n,
\]
such that
\[
\hat{B}_i(x_j) = \begin{cases} 
2/3 & \text{if } i = j \\
1/6 & \text{if } i = j \pm 1 \\
0 & \text{if otherwise.}
\end{cases}
\]

We define the cubic B-spline \( B_i(x) \), for \( 0 \leq i \leq n \), satisfying the homogeneous boundary conditions (1-2):
\[
B_0(x) = \hat{B}_0(x) - 4\hat{B}_1(x), \quad B_1(x) = \hat{B}_1(x) - \hat{B}_{-1}(x), \\
B_i(x) = \hat{B}_i(x), \quad i = 2, 3, \ldots, n - 2, \\
B_{n-1}(x) = \hat{B}_{n-1}(x) - \hat{B}_{n+1}(x), \quad B_n(x) = \hat{B}_n(x) - 4\hat{B}_{n+1}(x).
\]

Then we may represent an approximation \( u_h \in S(\Omega_h) \) by
\[
u_h = \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{l=0}^n w_{kl} B_{kl}(x, y),
\]
where \( B_{kl}(x, y) = B_k(x)B_l(y) \), for \( k, l = 0, 1, \ldots, n \).

We mean \( z_j(x) \), for \( 0 \leq j \leq n \), by piecewise-linear “hat” function in one space variable with support \([x_{j-1}, x_{j+1}]\):
\[
z_j(x_k) = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } j = k \\
0 & \text{if otherwise.}
\end{cases}
\]

The equation (2-1) is equivalent to
\[
(2-3) \quad \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{l=0}^n w_{kl} < LB_{kl}, z_{ij} > = < f, z_{ij} >, \quad i, j = 0, 1, \ldots, n,
\]
where \( z_{ij}(x, y) = z_i(x)z_j(y) \). Let’s define the following:
\[
f = (f_{00}, \ldots, f_{0n}, \ldots, f_{n0}, \ldots, f_{nn})^T, \quad f_{ij} = 864 < f, z_{ij} >, \\
w = (w_{00}, \ldots, w_{0n}, \ldots, w_{n0}, \ldots, w_{nn})^T, \\
A = (a_{ij}), \quad a_{ij} = -6h \int_0^1 B''(x)z_i(x)dx, \quad i, j = 0, 1, \ldots, n, \\
B = (b_{ij}), \quad b_{ij} = 144h^{-1} \int_0^1 z_i(x)B_j(x)dx, \quad i, j = 0, 1, \ldots, n.
\]
With this notations, the equation (2-3) can be represented by means of matrix decomposition

\[(2-4) \quad (A \otimes B + B \otimes A)w = f,\]

where $\otimes$ denotes the tensor product and $(n + 1) \times (n + 1)$ matrices $A$ and $B$ are

\[
A = \begin{pmatrix}
11 & 2 & -1 \\
2 & 7 & -2 & -1 \\
-1 & -2 & 6 & -2 & -1 \\
-1 & -2 & 6 & -2 & -1 \\
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
B = \begin{pmatrix}
19 & 22 & 1 \\
28 & 77 & 32 & 1 \\
1 & 32 & 78 & 32 & 1 \\
1 & 32 & 78 & 32 & 1 \\
\end{pmatrix}
\]

As we see, the equation (2-4) has a special structure. In the next section we develop an efficient algorithm utilizing this structure.

3. Algorithm

Let $T(a, b)$ denote the symmetric pentadiagonal matrix of order $m =
\[ n + 1 \]

\[
T(a, b) = \begin{pmatrix}
  a - 1 & b & 1 \\
  b & a & b & 1 \\
  1 & b & a & b & 1 \\
  \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\
  1 & b & a & b & 1 \\
  1 & b & a & b \\
  1 & b & a & b & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\]

and \( S = (s_{ij}) \) the unitary matrix of order \( m \) whose \((i, j)\)-component is

\[
s_{ij} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{m + 1}} \sin \frac{ij\pi}{m + 1}, \quad i, j = 1, 2, \ldots, m.
\]

**Proposition.** \( \{ T(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{R} \} \) is a simultaneously-diagonalizable family of matrices. That is, for any real numbers \( a \) and \( b \),

\[
ST(a, b)S = \text{diag}(d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_m),
\]

where \( \text{diag}(d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_m) \) denotes the diagonal matrix with diagonal elements \( d_k \)'s and

\[
d_k = a - 2 - 2b \cos \theta_k + 4 \cos^2 \theta_k, \quad \theta_k = \frac{k\pi}{m + 1}, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, m.
\]

**Proof.** See [9] and [10].

Let \( T_i = T(a_i, b_i) \) and \( ST_iS = D_i, \quad i = 1, 2 \), where \( S \) and \( T_i \)'s are \( m \times m \) matrices defined as above and \( D_i \)'s are \( m \times m \) diagonal matrices. To solve a linear system of \( m^2 \) unknowns of the form

\[
(T_1 \otimes T_2 + T_2 \otimes T_1)w = f,
\]

where \( w \) and \( f \) are \( m^2 \)-dimensional vectors, we can formulate a fast direct algorithm based on the matrix decomposition using the fast Fourier transforms (FFT). This algorithm is similar to that of Fairweather[11].
It follows immediately from the above Proposition and the properties of matrix tensor product that the equation (3-1) is equivalent to

\[(3-2) \quad (D_1 \otimes D_2 + D_2 \otimes D_1)(S \otimes S)w = (S \otimes S)f,\]

which in turn shows that the following algorithm holds.

**Fast direct algorithm**

1. Compute \( \hat{f} = (S \otimes S)f. \)
2. Solve \((D_1 \otimes D_2 + D_2 \otimes D_1)\hat{w} = \hat{f}. \)
3. Compute \(w = (S \otimes S)\hat{w}. \)

It can be easily verified that the step 1 and the step 3 of the algorithm can be performed by FFT at the cost of \(O(m^2 \log m). \) Therefore the total amount of arithmetic operations of the algorithm is \(O(m^2 \log m) \) since the coefficient matrix of the system in step 2 is the diagonal matrix of order \(m^2. \) Notice that all steps of the algorithm can be implemented for parallel computations, see[11].

Let \(Q \) and \(R \) be nonsingular matrices of order \(m^2 \) whose \(k\)-th rows are different from each other only for \(k \in \mathcal{K}, \) where \(\mathcal{K}\) is any subset of the index set \(\{1, 2, \ldots, m^2\}. \) Define an \(m^2\)-dimensional vector \(\hat{b} = (\hat{b}_i)\) for a given \(m^2\)-dimensional vector \(b = (b_i)\)

\[
\hat{b}_i = \begin{cases} 
0, & \text{if } i \in \mathcal{K} \\
b_i, & \text{if otherwise.}
\end{cases}
\]

We seek the solution of \(Rx = b \) in the form

\[
x = y + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{K}} v_i g_i, \quad v_i \in R,
\]

where \(y \) is the solution of the equation \(Qy = \hat{b} \) and \(g_i\)’s are \(m^2\)-dimensional vectors to be determined. Let \(e_i \) denote the \(i\)-th standard unit vector and \((x)_i \) the \(i\)-th component of a vector \(x\) for any \(i. \) We now describe the capacitance matrix technique, see [12,13].

**Capacitance matrix algorithm**

1. Solve \(Qg_j = e_j, \quad j \in \mathcal{K}. \)
2. Compute the capacitance matrix $C = (c_{ij})$:

$$c_{ij} = (Rg_j)_i, \quad i, j \in \mathcal{K}$$

3. Solve $Qy = \hat{b}$.
4. Compute $h = (h_i), \quad h_i = b_i - (Ry)_i, \quad i \in \mathcal{K}$.
5. Solve $Cv = h$.
6. Solve $Qx = \hat{b} + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{K}} v_i e_i, \quad v = (v_i), \quad i \in \mathcal{K}$.

It is easy to verify that

$$(Rx)_j = (Ry)_j + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{K}} v_i (Rg_i)_j$$

$$= \begin{cases} \hat{b}_j + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{K}} v_i (e_i)_j = b_j + 0 = b_j, & \text{if } j \in \mathcal{K} \\ (Ry)_j + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{K}} v_i c_{ji} = (Ry)_j + h_j = b_j, & \text{if } j \notin \mathcal{K}, \end{cases}$$

which justifies the algorithm. Note that the capacitance matrix $C$ is usually dense and hence that the algorithm is useful only when $Qx = b$ can be solved easily and the number of different rows is quite small comparing to the order of the coefficient matrix $R$.

Introducing

$$T_1 = -T(-6, 2), \quad T_2 = T(78, 32)$$

$$Q = T_1 \otimes T_2 + T_2 \otimes T_1, \quad R = A \otimes B + B \otimes A,$$

we see that the capacitance matrix method with the fast direct algorithm may be applied to solve the equation (2-3) and the index set $\mathcal{K}$ is

$$\mathcal{K} = \{ k = (i - 1)m + j \mid (i = 1, 2, m - 1, m, \ j = 1, 2, \ldots, m)$$

or $(i = 1, 2, \ldots, m, \ j = 1, 2, m - 1, m)\}$. 

The number of elements of the index set $\mathcal{K}$ is $8m - 16$. Therefore the step 1 requires the arithmetic operations of $O(m^3 \log m)$ if the fast direct algorithm is applied without any modification. To reduce the order of the cost by one, we may take advantage of the structure of
R. Since matrices $A$ and $B$ are pentadiagonal, it can be easily verified that for $i = (k - 1)m + l$,

$$
(Rg_j)_i = \sum_{r=k-2}^{k+2} \sum_{s=l-2}^{l+2} (bt_ka_{kr} + a_{ls}b_{kr})(g_j)_{sr}
$$

and hence that to calculate $c_{ij} = (Rg_j)_i$ for all $i \in \mathcal{K}$ in step 2, we need only $16(m - 4)$ elements of the vector $g_j$, not all of them:

$$
\{(g_j)_i \mid i \in \mathcal{H}\},
$$

$$
\mathcal{H} = \{i = (r - 1)m + s \mid (r = 1, 2, 3, 4, m - 3, m - 2, m - 1, m, s = 1, \ldots, m) \quad \text{or} \quad (r = 5, 6, \ldots, m - 4, s = 1, 2, 3, 4, m - 3, m - 2, m - 1, m)\}.
$$

We have shown that the capacitance matrix $C$ can be formulated at the cost of $O(m^2)$. Now for each $j \in \mathcal{K}$ in step 1, we solve $(g_j)_i$’s only for $i \in \mathcal{H}$ not for all $i$ at the cost of $O(m \log m)$ by means of FFT. Therefore the step 1 requires the arithmatic operations of $O(m^2 \log m)$. It is easy to see that the cost for step 3, step 4 and step 6 are $O(m^2 \log m)$, $O(m^2)$ and $O(m^2 \log m)$ respectively. The matrix $C$ in step 5 is a dense matrix of order $(8m - 16)$, which means that our algorithm requires the arithmatic operations of $O(m^3)$ or $O(n^3)$ in total.

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