

# Solving PDE's with FEniCS

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

### Chapter 26

### Introduction to Automated Modeling with FEniCS

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Have seen two PDE systems, wave equation and elasticity, with governing equations of the form

$$\mathbf{u}_{tt} + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{f}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{u}$  is a vector in the discretized approximation.

Solutions oscillate as function of  $t$ .

Amplitude of oscillations can depend strongly on frequency of oscillation of forcing function  $\mathbf{f}$ .

Such systems exhibit **resonance**: amplitude becomes arbitrarily large as the frequency of  $\mathbf{f}$  is tuned to characteristic frequencies of the system (1).

# Resonance

Resonance is a phenomenon that children encounter when playing on a swing.

They learn to tune their forcing (or pumping) to a natural frequency of the swing set.

Fortunately, there is a simple algorithm for doing this, although some people are better at it than others.

Basically, you pump at the same place in the cycle every time, and this makes  $f$  repeat at the natural frequency of the swing.

Resonance is a critical factor in engineering design.

## Resonance effects

Resonance can lead to disasters such as the collapse of the original Tacoma Narrows bridge [1].

Thus it is considered in the design of all large structures: bridges, buildings, etc.

Resonance is also a major factor in the amplification of the effects of earthquakes [11, 6].

Amplitude of tidal motion determined by resonance.

Resonance critical in musical instruments design.

Harmonics for string instruments are resonance.

## Scalar resonance

To begin to understand resonance quantitatively, we simplify (1) even further by considering a scalar equation of the form

$$u'' + \mu u = f, \quad (2)$$

where  $f(t) = \cos(\omega t)$  and  $\omega$  is a constant.

We can solve (1) as  $u(t) = a \cos(\omega t)$ , since for this function

$$u''(t) = -a \omega^2 \cos(\omega t) = -\omega^2 u(t).$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} u''(t) + \mu u(t) &= (\mu - \omega^2)u(t) \\ &= a(\mu - \omega^2) \cos(\omega t) = a(\mu - \omega^2)f(t). \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Therefore  $u(t) = a \cos(\omega t)$  solves (1) if

$$a = \frac{1}{\mu - \omega^2}. \quad (4)$$

The fact that the amplitude  $a$  of  $u$  goes to infinity as  $\omega \rightarrow \sqrt{\mu}$  is called **resonance**.

As forcing frequency approaches critical value  $\sqrt{\mu}$ , solution gets arbitrarily big, even though  $f$  stays same.

# Oscillations

Can solve (1) when  $\mu = \omega^2$ , although (3) no longer valid.

Instead, we find (Exercise 0.1) a solution

$$u(t) = t \sin(\omega t),$$

which grows without bound as time progresses.

Resonance in disasters: physical system exceeds its design limits, and then it fails.

Must avoid forcing frequency matching this critical value.

For a single equation, easy to see what critical value is, but for systems of equations, more notation needed.

## Vector resonance

To solve (1) with  $\mathbf{f}(t) = \mathbf{g} \cos(\omega t)$ , let us try  $\mathbf{u}(t) = \mathbf{a} \cos(\omega t)$  for some vector  $\mathbf{a}$  to be determined.

Following the previous steps, we find

$$\mathbf{u}_{tt}(t) + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}(t) = (\mathbf{A} - \omega^2 \mathcal{I})\mathbf{u}(t) = (\mathbf{A} - \omega^2 \mathcal{I})\mathbf{a} \cos(\omega t), \quad (5)$$

where  $\mathcal{I}$  is the identity matrix.

Thus we have a solution provided

$$(\mathbf{A} - \omega^2 \mathcal{I})\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{g}. \quad (6)$$

So to understand resonance in this case, we need to know how big  $\mathbf{a}$  can be for different values of  $\omega$ .

# Eigenvalues

In particular, we want to avoid situations where  $\mathbf{A} - \omega^2 \mathbf{I}$  is nearly singular.

This leads us to the study of **eigenvalues**.

Eigenvalues can take various forms. The simplest context is in terms of matrices.

## Eigenvalues of matrices

The eigenvalue and eigenvector pair  $(\lambda, \mathbf{X})$  for a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is defined by the equation

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \lambda\mathbf{X}. \quad (7)$$

The fine print requires  $\mathbf{X} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , for otherwise  $(\lambda, \mathbf{0})$  would always be a solution for any  $\lambda$ .

But moreover,  $\mathbf{X}$  is not unique: if  $\mathbf{X}$  is a solution so is  $c\mathbf{X}$  for any scalar  $c$ .

So we have to think of  $\mathbf{X}$  as only prescribing a direction, not a magnitude.

## Eigenvalues and resonance

Eigenvalues are ideal for answering the questions raised about resonance in (6).

If  $\omega^2$  not near an eigenvalue, then no resonance.

This is why we determine the eigenvalues of systems.

Even if we are only interested in real-valued matrices, the eigenpair  $(\lambda, \mathbf{X})$  may be complex.

However, if  $\mathbf{A}$  is symmetric ( $\mathbf{A}^t = \mathbf{A}$ ) then both are real.

As we have seen, there are many applications for which  $\mathbf{A}$  is symmetric, so we focus primarily on such systems.

## Variational eigenproblems

Variational problems have eigenvalues too. They take the form

$$a(u, v) = \lambda (u, v)_{L^2(\Omega)} \quad \forall v \in V. \quad (8)$$

Here  $u$  is the eigenvector and  $\lambda$  is the eigenvalue.

Again,  $u$  is defined only up to a constant multiple, and so it is natural to constrain it in some way.

The variational formulation is appropriate for the Rayleigh<sup>1</sup> characterization of eigenvalues.

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<sup>1</sup>John William Strutt, 3rd Baron Rayleigh (1842–1919) was a student of Stokes.

## Rayleigh quotient

Define the Rayleigh quotient

$$\mathcal{R}(v) = \frac{a(v, v)}{(v, v)_{L^2(\Omega)}}, \quad v \in V, \quad (9)$$

where  $V$  is one of our finite element spaces.

In particular, eigenvalues are critical points of  $\mathcal{R}$ .

For example, the smallest eigenvalue is given by

$$\lambda_{\min} = \min_{0 \neq v \in V} \mathcal{R}(v). \quad (10)$$

## Rayleigh quotient homogeneity

Here the notation  $0 \neq v \in V$  means that  $v \in V$  is not identically zero, so in particular  $\|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)} > 0$ .

Note that  $\mathcal{R}(cv) = \mathcal{R}(v)$  for any scalar  $c$ , due to the homogeneity of  $\mathcal{R}$  (it is quadratic in both the numerator and denominator).

Thus it is equivalent to write

$$\lambda_{\min} = \min_{v \in V, \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}=1} \mathcal{R}(v). \quad (11)$$

## Rayleigh quotient as a lower bound

Writing out the Rayleigh quotient, we have

$$\lambda_{\min} = \min_{0 \neq v \in V} \frac{a(v, v)}{(v, v)_{L^2(\Omega)}} = \min_{0 \neq v \in V} \frac{a(v, v)}{\|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}^2}.$$

Thus

$$\lambda_{\min} \leq \frac{a(v, v)}{\|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}^2} \quad \forall 0 \neq v \in V.$$

Multiplying by  $\|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}$ , we find

$$\lambda_{\min} \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}^2 \leq a(v, v) \quad \forall v \in V. \quad (12)$$

Note that this holds trivially for  $v \equiv 0$ .

## Rayleigh quotient and coercivity

We recognize (12) as a statement of coercivity if  $\lambda_{\min} > 0$ .

This demonstrates a theoretical role for eigenvalues, in addition to the phenomenological role with regard to resonance discussed earlier.

One simple algorithm for approximating eigenvalues is **Rayleigh quotient iteration**:

$$\begin{aligned}a(w^k, v) - \lambda^k(w^k, v)_{L^2(\Omega)} &= (u^k, v)_{L^2(\Omega)} \quad \forall v \in V, \\u^{k+1} &= \|w^k\|_{L^2(\Omega)}^{-1} w^k, \\ \lambda^{k+1} &= \mathcal{R}(u^{k+1}).\end{aligned}\tag{13}$$

Note that

$$\|u^{k+1}\|_{L^2(\Omega)} = \|w^k\|_{L^2(\Omega)}^{-1} \|w^k\|_{L^2(\Omega)} = 1,$$

so that  $\mathcal{R}(u^{k+1}) = a(u^{k+1}, u^{k+1})$ .

Need to start with some  $u^0$  and  $\lambda^0$ ; quality of guesses will affect efficiency of the algorithm.

## Algorithm details

Some care needs to be taken regarding solving for  $w^k$  since the system used is approaching singularity.

However, this is part of the magic of the algorithm [9, Section 15.2.1].

If we know that  $a(v, v) \geq 0$  for all  $v \in V$ , then we could take any  $\lambda^0 < 0$  to approximate the lowest eigenvalue.

For the lowest eigenvalue, the corresponding eigenvector is often nonnegative, so that information could also be used.

For example, we might take  $u^0 \equiv 1$ .

## Characteristic values

The eigenvalues of a given operator, such as the Laplacian, will depend on the domain.

Moreover, they can be characteristic of the domain, allowing the identification of the domain from the eigenvalues [5].

The word “eigen” is German for “characteristic,” and one thus often sees the term **characteristic values** instead of eigenvalues.

## Review of the Helmholtz problem

The Helmholtz problem involves solving

$$-k^2 u(\mathbf{x}) - \Delta u(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}). \quad (14)$$

But we know that there can be eigenvalues  $\lambda = k^2$  where the corresponding eigenvector  $u_\lambda$  satisfies

$$-\Delta u_\lambda(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda u_\lambda(\mathbf{x}), \quad (15)$$

leading to a null solution  $u_\lambda$  of (14).

## Expected resonance

For  $k$  near  $\sqrt{\lambda}$  we thus expect a resonance phenomenon, and if  $\lambda = k^2$  the character of the solution can change completely.

In particular,  $f$  must satisfy constraints.

If  $\lambda$  is a simple eigenvalue [10], then the constraint is that  $(f, u_\lambda)_{L^2(\Omega)} = 0$ .

## Meaning of Gårding's inequality

Gårding's inequality (10.21) can be interpreted as follows. Let  $\rho = \gamma_2/\gamma_1$ . Then dividing by  $\gamma_1$ , (10.21) can be rewritten

$$\gamma_1^{-1} \|v\|_{H^1(\Omega)}^2 \leq a(v, v) + \rho \|v\|_{L^2(\Omega)}^2 \quad \forall v \in V.$$

This is the coercivity inequality for the new bilinear form

$$a_\rho(u, v) := a(u, v) + \rho(u, v)_{L^2(\Omega)} \quad \forall u, v \in V.$$

If  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue for  $a_\rho(\cdot, \cdot)$ , then  $\lambda - \rho$  is an eigenvalue for  $a(\cdot, \cdot)$  (Exercise 0.4). Since coercivity is a statement about positivity of eigenvalues, this means that the eigenvalues of  $a(\cdot, \cdot)$  are bounded below by  $-\rho$ .

## Estimating the inf-sup constant

Several papers have addressed the issue of estimating computationally the inf-sup constant for various spaces and variational problems [7, 8, 2].

We show here that this can be thought of as an eigenvalue problem [4].

Define  $\kappa$  by

$$\kappa = \min_{0 \neq v \in V_h, v \perp_a Z_h} \frac{(\nabla \cdot v, \nabla \cdot v)_{L^2}}{a(v, v)} = \min_{0 \neq v \in Z_h^\perp} \frac{(\nabla \cdot v, \nabla \cdot v)_{L^2}}{a(v, v)}, \quad (16)$$

where  $Z_h^\perp = \{\mathbf{v} \in V_h : a(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}) = 0 \ \forall \mathbf{w} \in Z_h\}$ .

## Relating $\beta$ and $\kappa$

We have  $\beta \geq \sqrt{\kappa}$ , where  $\beta$  is the constant in the inf-sup condition provided we define  $\|v\|_V = \sqrt{a(v, v)}$ .

LEMMA: Suppose  $\|v\|_V = \sqrt{a(v, v)}$  and  $Q_h = \nabla \cdot V_h$ .  
Then

$$\begin{aligned}\beta &= \inf_{0 \neq q \in Q_h} \sup_{0 \neq v \in V_h} \frac{b(v, q)}{\|v\|_V \|q\|_{L^2}} \\ &= \inf_{0 \neq q \in Q_h} \sup_{0 \neq v \in Z_h^\perp} \frac{b(v, q)}{\|v\|_V \|q\|_{L^2}} \geq \sqrt{\kappa},\end{aligned}\tag{17}$$

where  $\kappa$  is defined in (16).

## The proof

*Proof.* Take  $q = \nabla \cdot w$  where  $w \in Z_h^\perp$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \inf_{0 \neq w \in Z_h^\perp} \sup_{0 \neq v \in Z_h^\perp} \frac{(\nabla \cdot v, \nabla \cdot w)_{L^2}}{\|\nabla \cdot w\|_{L^2} \|v\|_V} &\geq \inf_{0 \neq w \in Z_h^\perp} \frac{(\nabla \cdot w, \nabla \cdot w)_{L^2}}{\|\nabla \cdot w\|_{L^2} \|w\|_V} \\ &= \inf_{0 \neq w \in Z_h^\perp} \frac{\|\nabla \cdot w\|_{L^2}}{\|w\|_V} \\ &= \sqrt{\gamma} \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

by taking  $v = w$ .

On the other hand, [3, (13.1.16)] implies that

$$\sqrt{\kappa} \geq \beta \left( \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + C_a} \right).$$

With the choice of norm  $\|v\|_V = \sqrt{a(v, v)}$ , then  $C_a = \alpha = 1$ .

Thus  $\beta$  and  $\sqrt{\kappa}$  are essentially equivalent parameters measuring the stability of the Stokes approximation.

## An eigenproblem

Consider the eigenproblem: find  $0 \neq \mathbf{u}_h \in Z_h^\perp$  such that

$$(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}_h, \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) = \lambda a(\mathbf{u}_h, \mathbf{v}) \quad \forall \mathbf{v} \in Z_h^\perp.$$

Let  $\lambda_{\min}$  be the smallest eigenvalue, which is given by the Rayleigh quotient

$$\lambda_{\min} = \min_{\mathbf{v} \in Z_h^\perp} \frac{(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}, \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v})}{a(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v})} > 0. \quad (19)$$

Note that  $\lambda_{\min} > 0$  since  $\lambda = 0$  leads to the contradiction  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}_h = 0$ , that is,  $\mathbf{u}_h \in Z_h \cap Z_h^\perp$ .

Now solve for  $\mathbf{u}_h$  via Rayleigh quotient iteration (**RQI**).

## Solve by RQI

Find  $\mathbf{u}^k \in Z_h^\perp$  such that

$$\begin{aligned}(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}^{k-1}, \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) &= \lambda^k a(\mathbf{u}^k, \mathbf{v}) \quad \forall \mathbf{v} \in Z_h^\perp \\ \lambda^{k+1} &= \frac{(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}^k, \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}^k)}{a(\mathbf{u}^k, \mathbf{u}^k)} \geq \lambda_{\min}.\end{aligned}\tag{20}$$

Now we consider how to compute this despite the fact that the space  $Z_h^\perp$  is not explicitly known.

In the case that  $a(\cdot, \cdot)$  is coercive on all of  $V_h$ , we can implement (20) by solving

$$a(\mathbf{u}^k, \mathbf{v}) = (\lambda^k)^{-1} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}^{k-1}, \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) \quad \forall \mathbf{v} \in V_h.$$

Then  $a(\mathbf{u}^k, \mathbf{v}) = 0$  for all  $\mathbf{v} \in Z_h$ , so  $\mathbf{u}^k \in Z_h^\perp$  for all  $k > 0$ .

## Comparison with earlier techniques

The approach advocated in [7, 8, 2] requires working with a larger space than  $\nabla \cdot V_h$ , and it thus finds spurious modes in addition to estimating the constant  $\kappa = \lambda_{\min}$ .

By contrast, our approach has no spurious modes, since  $\kappa = \lambda_{\min} > 0$ , and it identifies concretely an approximation of the extrema of (16).

Thus there is a fundamental philosophical difference regarding spurious modes.

Using our approach, the concept of spurious modes itself becomes spurious.

## Exercises

**Exercise 0.1** Consider (2) in the case that  $\omega = \sqrt{\mu}$ . In this case, the formula (3) is no longer valid. Show that instead, there is a solution of the form

$$u(t) = \frac{t}{2\omega} \sin(\omega t).$$

(Hint: write  $u = tv$  and show that  $u'' = 2v' + tv''$ . Be sure to say what the formula for  $v$  is. Next show that  $tv'' = -\omega^2 u$ , so that  $u'' + \omega^2 u = 2v'$ . Finally, verify that  $2v' = \cos(\omega t)$ .)

**Exercise 0.2** *Consider the Laplacian on the square with homogeneous Dirichlet conditions. Show that it has an eigenvalue  $2\pi^2$  with corresponding eigenvector  $u(x, y) = (\sin \pi x)(\sin \pi y)$ .*

**Exercise 0.3** *Consider the Laplacian on the square. Approximate its lowest eigenvalue using the Rayleigh quotient iteration starting with  $\lambda^0 = 0$  and  $u^0 \equiv 1$ . Compare your answer with  $\lambda = 2\pi^2$ . Do you get close if you take the degree of approximation high enough and the mesh fine enough?*

**Exercise 0.4** *Suppose that  $a(\cdot, \cdot)$  is a bilinear form on a space  $V$  and  $\rho \in \mathbb{R}$ . Define a new bilinear form*

$$a_\rho(u, v) := a(u, v) + \rho(u, v)_{L^2(\Omega)} \quad \forall u, v \in V.$$

*Suppose  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue for  $a_\rho(\cdot, \cdot)$ . Show that  $\lambda - \rho$  is an eigenvalue for  $a(\cdot, \cdot)$*

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