New RBF collocation schemes and their applications

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1. Motivations

The <u>radial basis function (RBF)</u> method is truly <u>meshfree</u> and <u>independent of dimensionality and geometry complicity</u> and has <u>inherent multiscale capability</u>. Among the existing RBF-based schemes for PDE's are

- 1. Domain-type schemes: <u>Kansa's method (unsymmetric)</u> and <u>Fasshauer's Hermite method (symmetric)</u>. Both <u>lose significant</u> <u>accuracy nearby boundary</u>.
- 2. Boundary-type schemes: <u>method of fundamental solution (MFS)</u>, also known as <u>regular BEM</u>. The method is <u>unsymmetric</u> and requires <u>controversial fictitious boundary outside physical domain</u> <u>due to singularity of fundamental solution</u>, which causes <u>instability</u> for irregular geometry.

The purposes of this study are to

- 1. develop a <u>symmetric boundary knot method (BKM)</u> which bases on the <u>Hermite interpolation with nonsingular general solution</u> and uses the <u>dual reciprocity principle (DRM</u>) to evaluate particular solution;
- 2. introduce a truly boundary-only <u>boundary particle method</u> (<u>BPM</u>) which applies the <u>multiple reciprocity principle (MRM</u>);
- 3. present a domain-type <u>modified Kansa method (MKM)</u> by combining <u>symmetric Hermite interpolation</u> and <u>the DRM</u> to improve the solution accuracy close to boundary.

2. Symmetric boundary knot method and boundary particle method

The BKM can be viewed as a <u>two-step scheme</u>, approximation of <u>particular solution</u> and the evaluation of <u>homogeneous solution</u>. Let us consider the differential equation

$$\Re\{u\} = f(x), \qquad x \in \Omega$$

with boundary conditions

$$u(x) = R(x), \qquad x \subset S_u,$$

 $\frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial n} = N(x), \qquad x \subset S_T.$

The solution of the above equation can be split as

$$u = u_h + u_p$$
.

The particular solution u_p satisfies the governing equation but not necessarily boundary conditions, while the <u>homogeneous solution</u> u_h must hold both, namely,

$$\Re\{u_h\} = 0,$$
$$u_h(x) = R(x) - u_p,$$
$$\frac{\partial u_h(x)}{\partial n} = N(x) - \frac{\partial u_p(x)}{\partial n}.$$

Like the MFS and BEM, the <u>DRM</u> and <u>RBF</u> are employed to evaluate the particular solution. The inhomogeneous term is approximated by

$$f(x) \cong \sum_{j=1}^{N+L} \alpha_j \phi(r_j).$$

We have

$$u_p = \sum_{j=1}^{N+L} \alpha_j \varphi \big(\|x - x_j\| \big),$$

where the RBF ϕ is related to the RBF ϕ through operator \mathcal{R} .

The distinctions of the BKM are to use the <u>nonsingular general</u> <u>solution</u>, namely,

$$u_h(x) = \sum_{k=1}^L \lambda_k u_0^{\#} (||x - x_k||)$$

Unlike the MFS, the BKM places all nodes only on <u>physical</u> <u>boundary</u>. However, the naïve use of the above representation leads to an unsymmetric scheme. Instead, we use

$$u_h(x) = \sum_{s=1}^{L_d} \lambda_s u_0^{\#}(r_s) - \sum_{s=L_d+1}^{L_d+L_N} \lambda_s \frac{\partial u_0^{\#}(r_s)}{\partial n},$$

Substituting the above RBF representation into boundary equations produces

$$\sum_{s=1}^{L_d} a_s u_0^{\#}(r_{is}) - \sum_{s=L_d+1}^{L_d+L_N} a_s \frac{\partial u_0^{\#}(r_{is})}{\partial n} = R(x_i) - u_p(x_i),$$

$$\sum_{s=1}^{L_d} a_s \frac{\partial u_0^{\#}(r_{js})}{\partial n} - \sum_{s=L_d+1}^{L_d+L_N} a_s \frac{\partial^2 u_0^{\#}(r_{js})}{\partial n^2} = N(x_j) - \frac{\partial u_p(x_j)}{\partial n},$$

$$\sum_{s=1}^{L_d} a_s u_0^{\#}(r_{ls}) - \sum_{s=L_d+1}^{L_d+L_N} a_s \frac{\partial u_0^{\#}(r_{ls})}{\partial n} = u_l - u_p(x_l).$$

3. Boundary particle method

According to the <u>multiple reciprocity theorem</u>, the particular solution can be approximated by <u>higher-order homogeneous solution</u>

$$u = u_h^0 + u_p^0 = u_h^0 + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} u_h^m$$
.

Through an incremental differentiation via operator \mathscr{R} }, we have:

$$\sum_{s=1}^{L_d} \beta_s u_0^{\#}(r_i) - \sum_{s=L_d+1}^{L_d+L_N} \beta_s \frac{\partial u_0^{\#}(r_i)}{\partial n} = R(x_i) - u_p^0(x_i)$$
$$\sum_{s=1}^{L_d} \beta_s \frac{\partial u_0^{\#}(r_j)}{\partial n} - \sum_{s=L_d+1}^{L_d+L_N} \beta_s \frac{\partial^2 u_0^{\#}(r_j)}{\partial n^2} = N(x_j) - \frac{\partial u_p^0(x_j)}{\partial n}$$

$$\sum_{s=1}^{L_d} \beta_s \Re^{n-1} \{ u_n^{\#}(r_{is}) \} - \sum_{s=L_d+1}^{L_d+L_N} \beta_s \frac{\partial \Re^{n-1} \{ u_n^{\#}(r_{is}) \}}{\partial n} = \Re^{n-2} \{ f(x_i) \} - \Re^{n-1} \{ u_p^{n}(x_i) \}$$
$$\sum_{s=1}^{L_d} \beta_s \frac{\partial \Re^{n-1} \{ u_n^{\#}(r_{js}) \}}{\partial n} - \sum_{s=L_d+1}^{L_d+L_N} \beta_s \frac{\partial^2 \Re^{n-1} \{ u_n^{\#}(r_{js}) \}}{\partial n^2} = \frac{\partial \{ \Re^{n-2} \{ f(x_j) \} - \Re^{n-1} \{ u_p^{n}(x_j) \} \}}{\partial n}$$
$$n=1,2,\ldots,$$

where \mathcal{R}^{n} { } denotes the *n*-th order operator \mathcal{R} { }.

The successive process is truncated at some order M. The practical solution procedure is a reversal recursive process:

$$\beta_k^M \to \beta_k^{M-1} \to \cdots \to \beta_k^0.$$

It is noted that due to

$$\mathfrak{R}^{n-1}\left\{\!\boldsymbol{u}_h^n(\boldsymbol{r}_k)\right\}\!=\boldsymbol{u}_h^0(\boldsymbol{r}_k),$$

the coefficient matrices of all successive equation are the same, i.e.

$$Q\beta^n = b^n, n = M, M - 1, ..., 1, 0.$$

Thus, the LU decomposition algorithm is suitable. Finally, we have

$$u(x_i) = \sum_{n=0}^{M} \sum_{k=1}^{L} \beta_k^n u_n^{\#}(r_{ik}).$$

4. Numerical validations for the BKM and BPM

4.1. Helmholtz problem

$$\nabla^2 u + \gamma^2 u = f(x)$$

with Dirichlet and Neumann boundary conditions. The exact solutions are

$$u = x^2 \sin(dx) \cos(dy)$$

for 2D inhomogeneous Helmholtz problem ($\gamma = d\sqrt{2}$) and

$$u = \cos(dx)\sin(dy)\sin(dz)$$

for 3D homogeneous Helmholtz ($\gamma = d\sqrt{3}$).

4.2. Steady convection-diffusion problem

$$D\nabla^2 u - v \bullet \nabla u - \kappa u = g(x)$$

with Dirichlet and Neumann boundary conditions. The exact solutions are

$$u = x^2 e^{-\eta(x+y)}$$

for 2D inhomogeneous problem, where D=1, $v_x=v_y=-\sigma$, $\kappa=3\sigma^2/2$, $\eta = (\sigma + \sqrt{\sigma^2 + 2\kappa})/2$, and

$$u = e^{-\sigma(x+y+z)}$$

for 3D homogeneous problem, where D=1, $v_x=v_y=v_z=-\sigma$, $\kappa=7\sigma^2/12$.

The L_2 norms of relative errors are calculated at 460 nodes for 2D cases and 1012 knots for 3D cases.

Table 1. <u>L₂ norm of relative errors</u> for <u>2D inhomogeneous</u> <u>Helmholtz</u>

	BKM (41+15)	BKM (49+15)	BPM (49)	BPM (65)
$\gamma = \sqrt{2}$	1.0e-2	1.0e-4	2.6e-4	1.4e-3
	BKM (57+15)	BKM (88+15)	BPM (49)	BPM (65)
$\gamma = 2\sqrt{2}$	3.0e-2	8.0e-3	5.5e-4	3.2e-3

problems by the BKM and BPM

Table 2. L₂ norm of relative errors for 2D inhomogeneous convection-

diffusion problems by the BKM and BPM

	BKM (33+15)	BKM (41+15)	BPM (25)	BPM (41)
<i>P</i> *=36	8.4e-3	2.1e-4	9.0e-3	3.6e-4
	BKM (17+15)	BKM (25+15)	BPM (25)	BPM (41)
<i>P</i> =540	1.1e-3	3.5e-2	4.3e-3	4.1e-3

*P denotes Peclect number.

Table 3. L_2 norm of relative errors for 3D homogeneous Helmholtz

Helmholtz ($\gamma = \sqrt{3}$)		Helmholtz ($\gamma = 2\sqrt{3}$)		
1.3e-2 (366)	2.8e-3 (498)	5.7e-2 (804)	3.1e-3 (996)	

problems by the BKM.

Table 4. L_2 norm of relative errors for 3D homogeneous convection-

diffusion problems by the BKM.

Convection-diffusion (P=56)		Convection-diffusion (P=560)		
7.0e-6 (114)	3.5e-6 (174)	2.2e-33 (114)	2.4e-33 (174)	



Fig. 3. Average relative error curves for Dirichlet convection-diffusion problem with 2D elliptical and square domains



Fig. 4. Average relative error curve for Homogeneous Dirichlet Helmholtz, modified Helmholtz and convection-diffusion problems with 3D sphere domain

5. Modified Kansa method and its numerical validations

The Green integral solution of the previous PDE case is given by

$$u(x) = \int_{\Gamma} \left[u \frac{\partial u^{*}(x,z)}{\partial n} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} u^{*}(x,z) \right] d\Gamma(z) + \int_{\Omega} f(z) u^{*}(x,z) d\Omega(z).$$

With a numerical integral scheme, we have

$$u(x) \cong \sum_{k=1}^{N+L} p(x, x_k) \frac{\partial u^*}{\partial n} u + \sum_{k=1}^{N+L} h(x, x_k) u^* \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} + \sum_{k=1}^{N+L} \omega(x, x_k) u^* f(x_k).$$

By analogy with the Fasshauer's Hermite scheme, we can construct

$$u(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{L_d} \alpha_k \varphi(r_k) + \sum_{k=L_d+1}^{L} \alpha_k \left[-\frac{\partial \varphi(r_k)}{\partial n} \right] + \sum_{k=N+L+1}^{N+2L} \alpha_k \Re^* \{\varphi(r_k)\}.$$

Substituting the above expression into boundary and governing equations, we have the standard <u>Ax=b</u> formulation, where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \varphi & -\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial n} & \Re^* \{\varphi\} \\ \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial n} & -\frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial n^2} & \frac{\partial \Re^* \{\varphi\}}{\partial n} \\ \frac{\partial \Re \{\varphi\}}{\partial n} & -\frac{\partial \Re \{\varphi\}}{\partial n} & \Re \Re^* \{\varphi\} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The above scheme is called the <u>modified Kansa method</u> (MKM) in contrast to the <u>traditional Kansa method</u>.

Table 5. L_2 norms of relative errors for Dirichlet Laplace and

Helmholtz pr	roblems v	with a unit	square domain	by the	MKM.
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Laplace		Helmholtz ($\gamma = 2\sqrt{2}$)		
8.7e-3 (49)	1.4e-3 (81)	1.5e-4 (25)	1.5e-4 (36)	

The exact solution of Laplace problem is $u = 2\sin(\pi x) + \sin(2\pi y)$.

6. Remarks: merits and demerits

Merits:

- 1. Very easy to learn and program.
- 2. Independent of geometric complexity and dimensionality, applicable to high-dimensional moving boundary problems.
- 3. Symmetric, meshfree, integration-free and spectral-convergence.

Demerits:

- 1. Severe ill-conditioning of large dense RBF interpolation matrix
- 2. Immature mathematical theory: convergence, stability, and applicability.
- 3. Lacking rapid solution of global RBF interpolation of PDE's: localization and decomposition with preconditioning.