



Lecture 7

THE METHOD OF MOMENTS (MoM)



Ideally, the basis functions should represent a complete orthogonal base in the definition domain of the unknown function f .

$$\langle f_n, f_m \rangle = \int_S f_n \cdot f_m^* dS = \delta_{mn} \quad \forall m, n$$

However, the determination of an orthogonal base is not an easy task, especially in the case of arbitrary domains.

From a practical point of view, **the MoM results efficient when the basis functions exhibit a high degree of linear independency.**



The choice of the basis functions is based on various factors:

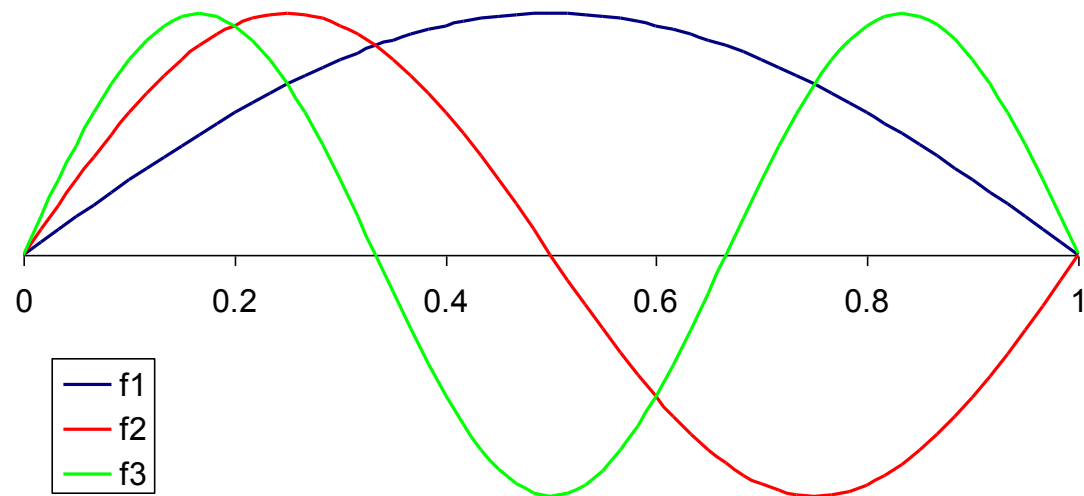
- Accuracy of the solution
- Easy computation of **A** and **B** matrix entries
- Size of matrix **A** (number of needed functions)
- Condition number of matrix **A**

Basis functions can be subdivided in two big classes:

- **entire-domain basis functions** (defined in the entire domain of functions f)
- **sub-domain basis functions** (defined in the small portion of the domain)

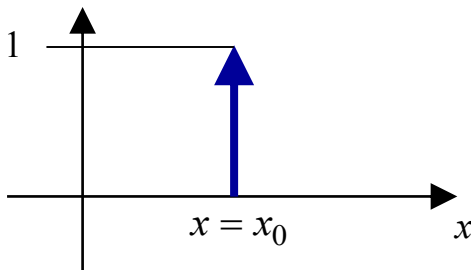
An example of **entire-domain basis functions** (in 1D case) is represented by sinusoidal functions.

$$f_n = \begin{cases} \sin(nx) \\ \cos(nx) \\ \exp(jnx) \end{cases}$$



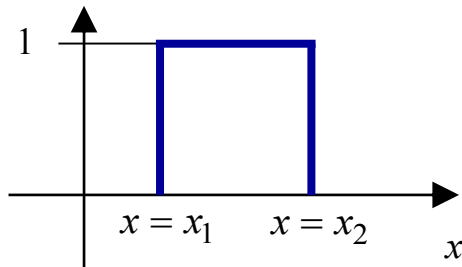
The **sub-domain basis functions** exist only on one of the N non-overlapping segments into which the domain is divided. Examples of sub-domain basis functions (in 1D case) are:

- **delta functions**



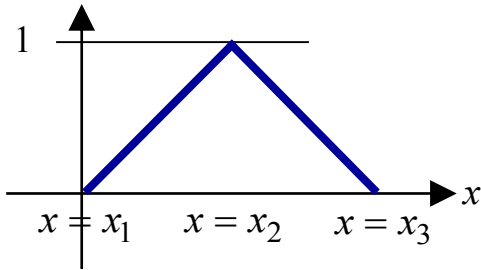
$$D(x) = \delta(x - x_0)$$

- **piecewise constant functions**



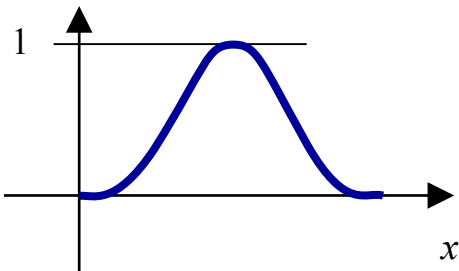
$$\Pi(x, x_1, x_2) = \begin{cases} 1 & x_1 \leq x \leq x_2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- triangular functions



$$\Lambda(x, x_1, x_2, x_3) = \begin{cases} \frac{x - x_1}{x_2 - x_1} & x_1 \leq x \leq x_2 \\ \frac{x_3 - x}{x_3 - x_2} & x_2 \leq x \leq x_3 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- spline functions



The integrals are typically computed in an approximate way, by using **techniques for numerical integration (also called numerical quadrature)**.

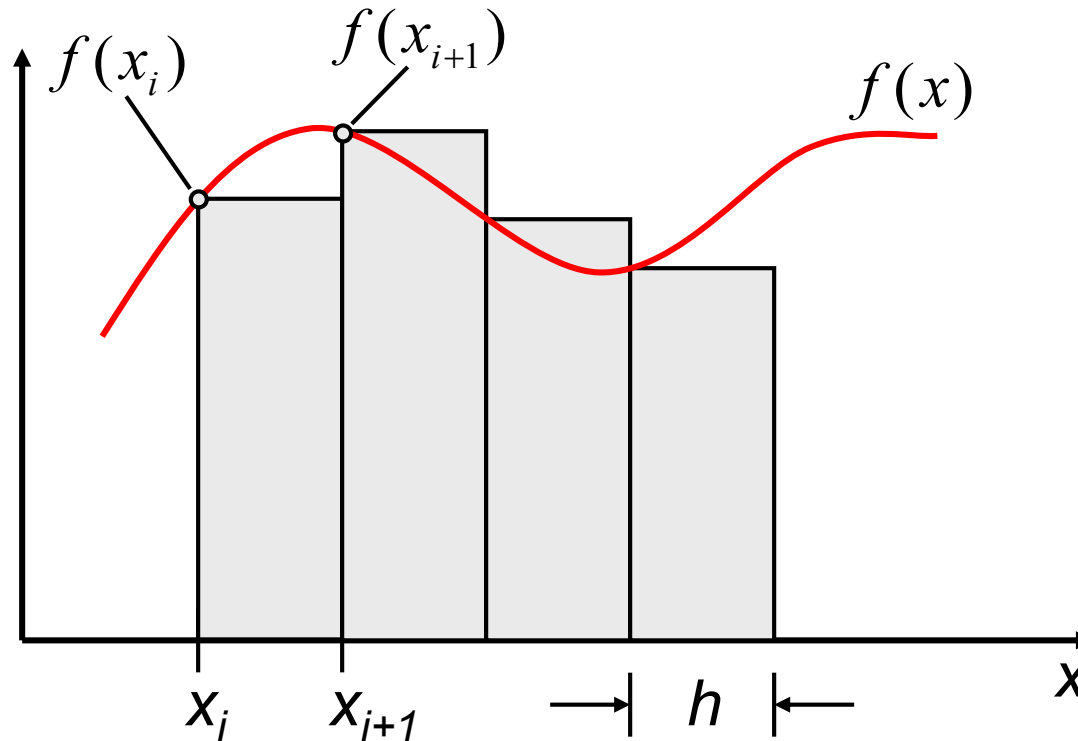
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \cong \sum_{i=1}^N \omega_i f(x_i)$$

where:

x_i represent the points where the function is computed

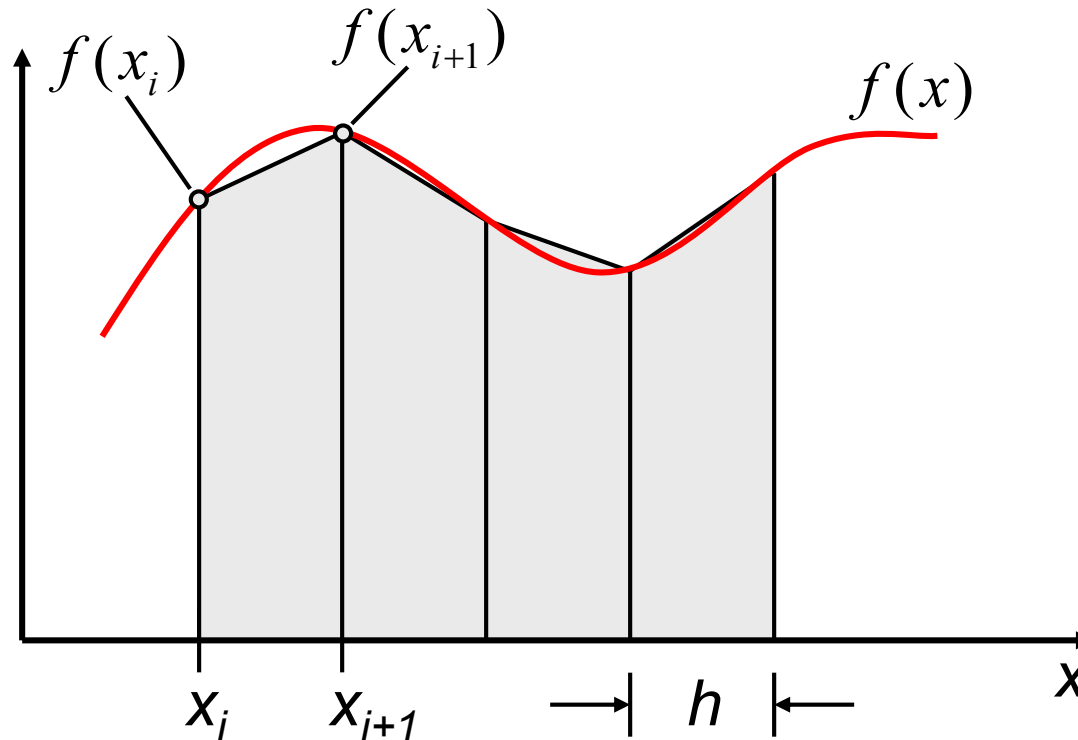
ω_i are the weights used to multiply the samples

EULER'S RULE



$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \cong \sum_{i=1}^N h f(x_i) = h \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i)$$

TRAPEZOIDAL RULE



$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \cong \sum_{i=1}^N h \left[\frac{f(x_{i-1}) + f(x_i)}{2} \right] = \frac{h}{2} f(x_0) + \left[h \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} f(x_i) \right] + \frac{h}{2} f(x_N)$$



SIMPSON'S RULE

Simpson's rule gives a more accurate result than the trapezoidal rule, as the integrand function is approximated by a second-degree polynomial (i.e., a parabola) in each sub-interval.

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \cong \sum_{i=1}^N h \left[\frac{f(x_{i-1}) + f(x_i) + f(x_{i+1}))}{2} \right] =$$
$$= \frac{h}{3} [f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + 4f(x_3) + \dots + 4f(x_{N-2}) + 2f(x_{N-1}) + f(x_N)]$$

where N is an even number.



More sophisticated techniques are based on higher order polynomial interpolation: the integrand function is interpolated by using a polynomial, which is subsequently integrated analytically.

NEWTON-COTES RULES

- Equally spaced sample points
- Weights are computed in such a way, that the quadrature rule with N points exactly integrates polynomials with order $N-1$
(N weights represent N degrees of freedom)

GAUSSIAN RULES

- Sample points are not equally spaced
- Points and weights are computed in such a way, that the quadrature rule with N points exactly integrates polynomials with order $2N-1$
(N points + N weights represent $2N$ degrees of freedom)



Points and weights for Gaussian integration, in the normalized interval $(-1,1)$

rule	weights	points
2	$\omega_1 = 1.000000000$ $\omega_2 = 1.000000000$	$x_1 = -0.577350269$ $x_2 = 0.577350269$
3	$\omega_1 = 0.555555556$ $\omega_2 = 0.888888889$ $\omega_3 = 0.555555556$	$x_1 = -0.774596669$ $x_2 = 0.000000000$ $x_3 = 0.774596669$
4	$\omega_1 = 0.347854845$ $\omega_2 = 0.652145155$ $\omega_3 = 0.652145155$ $\omega_4 = 0.347854845$	$x_1 = -0.861136312$ $x_2 = -0.339981044$ $x_3 = 0.339981044$ $x_4 = 0.861136312$



The solution of a set of simultaneous equations (linear system)

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{B}$$


can be based on:

- **direct methods** (Gauss's elimination method, LU decomposition), in the case of matrices with moderate size (up to 100x100).
- **iterative methods**, in the case of matrices with larger dimension.

GAUSS'S ELIMINATION METHOD

By a number of transformations, matrix \mathbf{A} is converted into a **triangular matrix**.

The set of equations is then solved by **back-substitution**.

computational effort  $O(N^3)$

Drawbacks of this method:

- the procedure to transform matrix \mathbf{A} into a triangular matrix changes also vector \mathbf{B} (therefore, if \mathbf{B} changes, the procedure has to be repeated).
- in some cases, a further re-ordering is needed (pivoting)



LU DECOMPOSITION (CHOLESKY'S METHOD)

Through a number of transformations, which do not affect vector \mathbf{B} , matrix \mathbf{A} is factorized in the form $\mathbf{A}=\mathbf{LU}$, i.e., as the product of a lower triangular matrix (\mathbf{L}) and an upper triangular matrix (\mathbf{U}).

By replacing $\mathbf{A}=\mathbf{LU}$ in the matrix equation $\mathbf{AX}=\mathbf{B}$, it results: $\mathbf{LUX}=\mathbf{B}$.
An auxiliary matrix \mathbf{Y} is defined, thus obtaining:

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{U X} = \mathbf{Y} \\ \mathbf{L Y} = \mathbf{B} \end{cases}$$

The computational effort is $O(N^3)$, but with a weight of 1/3 compared to the Gauss's elimination method.



ITERATIVE METHODS

Instead of solving directly the system of equations, a tentative solution \mathbf{X}_0 is adopted, and iteratively updated according to the formula

$$\mathbf{X}_n = \mathbf{C} \mathbf{X}_{n-1} + \mathbf{D} \quad (n = 1, 2, \dots)$$

until the convergence is achieved, which is defined by $|\mathbf{X}_n - \mathbf{X}_{n-1}| < \varepsilon$

The convergence process can be improved by adopting a **preconditioner** \mathbf{P} , thus solving the matrix equation

$$\mathbf{P} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{P} \mathbf{B}$$

where \mathbf{P} is an approximation of the inverse of matrix \mathbf{A} ($\mathbf{P} \approx \mathbf{A}^{-1}$)