Polynomial integration on regions defined by a triangle and a conic

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ABSTRACT

We present an efficient solution to the following problem, of relevance in a numerical optimization scheme: calculation of integrals of the type

$$\int_{T \cap \{f \geq 0\}} \phi_1 \phi_2 \, dx \, dy$$

for quadratic polynomials \(f, \phi_1, \phi_2\) on a plane triangle \(T\). The naive approach would involve consideration of the many possible shapes of \(T \cap \{f \geq 0\}\) (possibly after a convenient transformation) and parameterizing its border, in order to integrate the variables separately. Our solution involves partitioning the triangle into smaller triangles on which integration is much simpler.

Categories and Subject Descriptors

G.1.8 [Numerical Analysis]: Partial Differential Equations—finite element methods; I.1.2 [Symbolic and algebraic manipulation]: Algorithms—algebraic algorithms

Keywords

symbolic integration, triangular subdivision, optimal control, variational discretization, quadratic shape functions

1. INTRODUCTION

This article presents a symbolic solution to a problem of relevance in a numerical optimization scheme: the numerical solution of optimal control problems with partial differential equations as constraint requires to discretize the problem, i.e. to solve finite-dimensional approximations, see e.g. [3]. When applying the variational discretization concept [3], the following problem arises: integrals of the type

$$\int_{T \cap \{f \geq 0\}} g(x, y) \, dx \, dy, \quad g = \phi_1 \cdot \phi_2$$  \hspace{1cm} (1)

for quadratic polynomials \(f, \phi_1, \phi_2\) on a plane triangle \(T\) have to be evaluated accurately. Up to now the variational discretization method was used only for degree 1, i.e. where the function \(f\) defining the integral region in (1) is a polynomial of degree 1. Using polynomials with higher order gives better approximation results, see Theorem 5.5 below.

The naive approach to compute the integral (1) would involve consideration of the many possible shapes of \(T \cap \{f \geq 0\}\) and parameterizing its border, in order to integrate the variables separately. This suffers from some computational difficulties as we show below.

Example 1.1. Suppose that one side of the triangle lies on a horizontal line. Consider the situation where the region of integration is the part of the interior of an ellipse in the triangle, as in the figure.

We see that we could calculate the integral as the sum of five integrals on domains perpendicular to the \(x\) axis. For example the first one is

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_2} \left( \int_{c_-(x)}^{l_{AC}(x)} g(x, y) \, dy \right) \, dx$$

where \(y = l_{AC}(x)\) is the equation of the line \(AC\) and \(y = c_-(x)\) is the equation of the lower part of the ellipse. Note that we need to parameterize the ellipse (this will involve at best a square root or trigonometric functions) and calculate the \(x\)-coordinates of the relevant points, which also involve square roots. The value of the inner integral will be given by a formula of which an antiderivative must be computed then.

The resulting formula is far from simple.

An alternative would be to apply an affine transformation so that the ellipse becomes a circle centered at the origin, followed by a change to polar coordinates. This does not make the integral significantly easier to compute.

And of course, here we use our knowledge of the relative position of the ellipse and the triangle, as in the figure; the
possible relative positions of a conic and a triangle are many, and to discern them is not trivial.

In contrast, in the following particular case we obtain a simple formula.

**Example 1.2.** Let \( A = (0, 0), B = (1, 0), C = (1, 1) \), and assume that \( f \geq 0 \) on the triangle \( T = ABC \). If \( g(x, y) = \sum_{i+j\leq4} b_{ij} x^i y^j \) then the integral becomes

\[
\iint_T g(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 \left( \int_0^x g(x, y) \, dy \right) \, dx = \sum_{i+j\leq4} b_{ij} (j+1)(i+j+2) \quad (2)
\]

For a general triangle \( T \), one applies an affine transformation which brings the vertices to the above points. The resulting integrand is a polynomial of the same degree, and only a constant factor is introduced by the substitution formula.

Our solution involves partitioning \( T \) into smaller triangles on which integration is much simpler. The result is a decision tree and several relatively simple explicit formulas, which form Algorithm 2.1. The particular nature of \( g \), beyond it being a polynomial, will be immaterial. Our method could in principle be adapted for larger values of \( \text{deg } f \), although it may become too complicated for practical uses even for degree 3. Besides, only the quadratic case is relevant for the context in which this problem arose. It is important to point out that an implementation for floating point arithmetic would need a more detailed treatment, see the end of Section 3.

We describe the subdivision method in Section 2, the integration in the base cases in Section 3, the complete algorithm in Section 4 and a description of the application to optimization in Section 5 which includes some comments on the practical implementation of our algorithm.

## 2. TRIANGULAR SUBDIVISION

Our idea is to reduce the number of intersections between the curve \( f = 0 \) and the sides of the triangle, by cutting the triangle into pieces until we reach some base cases that we establish below. For those cases the integration will be much simpler than in Example 1.1. We leave for later the case where the conic \( f = 0 \) is degenerate (two lines, either intersecting, parallel, or coincident; one point; the empty set). Note that the type of a conic can be determined quickly by inspection of the equation.

First we introduce some nomenclature.

**Definition 2.1.** Fix a nonsingular conic. A segment is called free (with respect to the conic) if it does not intersect it except possibly at the vertices of the segment.

**Remark 2.2.**

1. Any line or segment intersects any conic at most at two points.
2. A segment joining two points of the conic is always free.

**Proof.** Part 1 is a simple case of the weak Bézout’s theorem. Part 2 is a clear consequence of part 1.

The calculation of the intersections of a segment with a given conic (and thus the determination of the freedom of the segment) is straightforward, and fast in practice. The next definition encapsulates the base cases of our subdivision method.

**Definition 2.3.** A triangle is called free if either all its sides are free, or the intersection of its border with the conic is just one non-vertex point.

Thus there are five types of free triangles: those with all sides free and 0, 1, 2 or 3 intersections at the vertices; and those with no vertex intersections and one side intersection.

![Free Triangles](image)

The rest of the section describes how to divide a given triangle so that all the pieces are free triangles. We proceed step by step in terms of the number of free sides.

**Lemma 2.4.** Every triangle with no free sides can be cut into seven free triangles.

**Proof.** Each non-free side has one or two interior intersections with the conic. We draw the four cases and one solution for each (possible vertex intersections are irrelevant here, thus not drawn). All the small triangles can be proven free by noting that their sides are either free parts of the original sides, or segments connecting two intersections (thus free by part 2 of Remark 2.2).

![Seven Free Triangles](image)

The next step is to consider non-free triangles with one free side. We introduce another useful term.

**Definition 2.5.** A triangle is almost free if exactly one of its sides is not free, and that side has only one intersection in its interior.

**Remark 2.6.** There are four types of almost-free triangles, depending on the vertex intersections.

![Almost-Free Triangles](image)

Note that if a triangle is almost free and has no vertex intersections with the conic, then it is free (first case).

**Lemma 2.7.** Every triangle with exactly one free side can be cut into five free or almost-free triangles, with zero or two of them being almost free.
Proof. There are three cases depending on the number of interior intersections with the non-free sides: \(2 + 2, 2 + 1\) and \(1 + 1\). The diagrams show how to cut the triangle in the three cases (possible vertex intersections, marked in white, make no difference). The numbers of free sides in each piece are indicated. As before, if a segment intersects a conic in its endpoints then it is free by part 2 of Remark 2.2.

In all cases, the only segment that may not be free is the lowest new one (dotted), and it can only have one interior intersection (by part 1 of Remark 2.2 since one of its endpoints is in the conic already). \(\square\)

Next, we consider the case when two sides are free.

Lemma 2.8. Every triangle with exactly two free sides can be cut into four free or almost-free triangles. At least one of them is free, except if the original triangle is almost free.

Proof. The non-free side has one or two interior intersections; in the former case, the triangle is almost free and we are finished. If it has two interior intersections, we join them with the opposite vertex and create two interior sides. There are three possibilities:

1. If there are no interior intersections in the new sides, the three pieces are free.
2. If one of the new sides has one interior point, we obtain one free triangle and two almost-free triangles.
3. If both new sides have one interior point each, with one extra cut we obtain one free triangle and three almost-free triangles.

The dashed lines indicate the partitions described above.

Note that in the last two cases, cutting along the dotted line reduces the number of almost-free triangles by one, but it increases the total number of triangles. This might make a small difference in performance. \(\square\)

Lemma 2.9. Every almost-free triangle can be cut into four free triangles.

Proof. If no vertex is in the conic, the triangle is already free (first case of Remark 2.7). If the vertex opposite to the non-free side belongs to the conic (third and fourth cases of Remark 2.7) then the segment between them is free, and the triangle is cut into two free pieces.

There remains only one case (see figure below): the conic intersects the triangle at two points, a vertex \(A\) and an interior point \(D\) of the side \(AB\). The conic cannot intersect \(AB\) tangentially (otherwise it would have multiplicity intersection \(\geq 3\) with that line). Therefore it must enter the triangle through \(D\) and it can only exit through \(A\).

When \(CD\) is free, this segment cuts the triangle in two free pieces. However this is not true in general.

Choose any point \(P\) in the conic and inside the triangle, with the property that \(BP\) and \(CP\) are free; then the original triangle is cut in four free pieces.

It suffices that the tangent to the conic at \(P\) leaves \(B\) and \(C\) on the same half-plane: the branch of the conic must then be contained in the other half-plane, thus \(BP\) and \(CP\) will be free. We offer three such points which are efficiently computable: the point whose tangent is parallel to \(BC\); and the points at which the tangents pass through \(B\) or \(C\). \(\square\)

Combining all the previous lemmas and counting the number of pieces at each step, we obtain the following result.

Proposition 2.10. Every triangle can be cut into eleven free triangles.

Remark 2.11. It is possible to reduce the final number of free pieces to nine but one needs to use more often the recourse of finding tangency points in the conic as in Lemma 2.3; we chose the simpler approach. On the other hand, those points can be computed efficiently, which may make it attractive to minimize the number of triangles in practice. Still, the integration time in each piece depends on the particular intersections.

2.1 Degenerate conics

We analyze now how to calculate the integral when \(f = 0\) is a degenerate conic. If it is empty, one point, or a double line, the integral is zero or the value on the full triangle.

2.1.1 Two parallel lines

If \(f = 0\) is two parallel lines, it can be converted by an affine transformation into \(x(x - 1) = 0\). We can determine in which of the regions \(x \leq 0, 0 \leq x \leq 1, 1 \leq x\) lies the image of each vertex by looking at their \(x\)-coordinates.

1. If all three vertices are in one of the three regions, the integral is either the full triangle integral or zero; we can determine the sign of \(f\) in the triangle and use \(\mathcal{I}\).
2. Otherwise, the triangle is split into two or three pieces (not necessarily triangular). The figure below depicts the possible cases. Once we have determined on which region(s) we must integrate (the middle strip or its complement), this can be done solely by adding and subtracting integrals of triangular pieces, which can be calculated using \(\mathcal{I}\).
2.1.2 Two crossing lines

The conic can be transformed to the pair of lines \( xy = 0 \), what allows us to quickly determine in which quadrants the vertices lie. The region on which to integrate is the intersection of the triangle and two opposing quadrants.

1. If all vertices are in the same quadrant, the integral is the full triangle or zero.

2. If all vertices are in two adjacent quadrants, the triangle is divided in two pieces, one of which is a triangle (or both, if a vertex lies in the limiting line). The integral is that on the triangular piece, or the complementary.

3. If the triangle is divided in three pieces by the conic, either all vertices are in different regions, or they are in two opposing regions. In any case, we can compute the integral on the relevant region by adding and subtracting integrals on triangles.

4. Finally, if the triangle is divided in four pieces by the conic, there are two possible arrangements as well. Again, we can compute the integral by adding and subtracting triangles.

For example, in the left figure, the union of the top-right and bottom-left regions of the triangle is \( \alpha + \gamma = (\alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta) - (\beta + \gamma) - (\delta + \gamma) + 2\gamma \), where the terms in parenthesis, as well as \( \gamma \), are triangles.

We can decide if we are in situation 1 or 2 by inspecting the signs of the coordinates of the transformed vertices. In order to differentiate situations 3 and 4 we use that the triangle is divided in four pieces if and only if the intersection of the two lines lies in its interior. This can be detected by calculating its barycentric coordinates as in the following algorithm.

**Algorithm 2.12.** Determine if a point \( P \) is inside a triangle \( ABC \).

1. In the expression \( \overrightarrow{AP} = \alpha \overrightarrow{AB} + \beta \overrightarrow{AC} \) calculate \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \):

\[
\alpha = \frac{\det(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{AC})}{\det(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{AC})} \quad \beta = \frac{\det(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{AP})}{\det(\overrightarrow{AB}, \overrightarrow{AC})}
\]

where \( \det(u, v) = u_1v_2 - u_2v_1 \).

2. If \( \alpha, \beta > 0 \) and \( \alpha + \beta < 1 \) then \( P \) is contained in the triangle.

3. If \( \alpha = 0 \) and \( \beta \in [0, 1] \); or \( \beta = 0 \) and \( \alpha \in [0, 1] \); or \( \alpha + \beta = 1 \) and \( \alpha \in [0, 1] \), then \( P \) is in the border of the triangle.

4. Otherwise \( P \) is outside the triangle.

In any case, for the final integral it is enough to add and substract several instances of \( \text{[2]} \), with no subdivisions other than the given by the lines of the conic.

3. BASE CASE INTEGRATION

In this section we describe how to detect the relative position of the nondegenerate conic \( f = 0 \) and a free triangle \( ABC \), and compute the integral, in the five possible cases of free triangles.

3.1 No intersections

There are three possibilities:

1. \( T \subset \{ f \geq 0 \} \): the integral was computed in Example \( \text{[1]} \).

2. \( T \subset \{ f \leq 0 \} \): the integral is zero.

3. \( f = 0 \) is an ellipse contained in \( T \).

By inspecting \( f \) we can decide immediately whether \( f = 0 \) is not an ellipse, from which we would deduce that we are in the first or second case. Then one can discern by evaluating the sign of \( f \) at some interior point of the triangle. On the other hand, if \( f = 0 \) is an ellipse, we have to determine if any of the two shapes is contained in the other. We can do this by mapping the ellipse to the unit circle.

**Algorithm 3.1.** Determine the relative position of the ellipse \( f = 0 \) and the triangle \( ABC \), and the correct domain of integration.

1. Calculate an affine transformation \( \phi : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2 \) that sends \( f = 0 \) into \( x^2 + y^2 = 1 \). Let \( P = (0, 0) \).

2. If \( d(\phi(A), \phi(B)) < 1 \) then \( ABC \) is contained in the ellipse; evaluate the sign of \( f \) at some interior point of \( ABC \) to decide if the integral is the full triangle or zero.

3. Otherwise, decide if \( P \) is inside the triangle \( A'B'C' := \phi(ABC) \) with Algorithm \( \text{[2]} \).

4. If \( P \) is in the triangle, then the ellipse is contained in it; evaluate the sign of \( f \) at \( \phi^{-1}(P) \) to decide on which region to integrate.

5. Otherwise, none of the shapes contains the other; evaluate the sign of \( f \) at \( \phi^{-1}(P) \) to decide if the integral is the full triangle or zero.

The remaining computation is the integral of \( g \) when the ellipse \( f = 0 \) is contained in the triangle. We show how to obtain a closed formula when \( \{ f \geq 0 \} \) is the bounded region inside the ellipse; in the other case, the required integral is the difference of the full triangle integral and the former.

Let \( \varphi = \phi^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2 \) which sends the circle \( x^2 + y^2 = 1 \) to \( f \). Then

\[
\iint_{\{f \geq 0\}} g \, dx \, dy = \int_D g(\varphi) |J(\varphi)| \, dx \, dy
\]
where \( D \) is the unit disc. Since \( \varphi \) is affine, \( |J(\varphi)| \in \mathbb{R} \) and 
\[ \mathcal{J} := g(\varphi) \] is again a polynomial. Now, using polar coordinates, this is equal to
\[
|J(\varphi)| \int_0^{2\pi} \left( \int_0^1 \mathcal{J}(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) \cdot r \, dr \right) \, d\theta
\]
which is reduced to a linear combination of integrals of type
\[
\int_0^\infty \mathcal{J}(x, t) \cdot t \, dt
\]
Alternatively, by Green’s theorem the integral inside the ellipse is
\[
\iint_E g(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_{\partial E} G(x, y) \, dy
\]
where \( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} = g \).

### 3.2 One side intersection, no vertex intersections

This case is entirely similar to the previous one.

### 3.3 One vertex intersection

This case is even simpler: \( T \) is contained in \( \{ f \geq 0 \} \) or \( \{ f \leq 0 \} \), we evaluate the sign of \( f \) at some interior point of the triangle in order to decide, and the integral will be that on the full triangle or zero.

### 3.4 Two vertex intersections

This case is more interesting. Either \( T \) is contained in one of the regions \( \{ f \geq 0 \} \), \( \{ f \leq 0 \} \), or it is divided in two regions by the conic. This can be discerned in the following way: determine a segment which cuts the triangle in two (not necessarily triangular) pieces, separating the two relevant vertices, and count the number of intersections of that segment and the conic. Examples: the median of the side determined by the two vertices, or a suitable vertical or horizontal segment. If there are intersections, we are in the latter situation, otherwise evaluate the sign of \( f \) inside the triangle to separate the first two possibilities.

Alternatively, convert the conic to a standard conic and check where the points lie after the transformation (see details in the next subsection).

If the triangle is divided in two regions by the curve, we really have to compute the integral on a region bounded by a conic arc and one or two segments. As usual we can consider only the former (the bottom region in the above picture), without loss of generality. How to determine the actual region of integration? The sign of \( f \) in the bottom region is the same as the sign of \( f \) in the middle point of the bottom side, for example.

We can calculate the integral by affinely transforming the conic into a standard conic: the circle \( x^2 + y^2 = 1 \), the parabola \( y = x^2 \) or the hyperbola \( xy = 1 \).

1. Circle: the integral on the circular segment can be efficiently calculated as the integral on the circular sector minus the integral on the triangle determined by the segment and the center of the circle.

2. Parabola: the integral after the transform is that on the region \( \{ y \in [l_{AB}(x), 0], x \in [a_1, b_1] \} \) where \( a_1, b_1 \) and \( b_1, b_2 \) are the images of the two intersection vertices, with \( a_1 < b_1 \), and \( l_{AB}(x) \) is the equation of the line through them.

3. Hyperbola: similarly to the previous case, the integral can be calculated as that on the region \( \{ y \in [l_{AB}(x), 1/x], x \in [a_1, b_1] \} \) if \( a_1 < b_1 < 0 \), or \( \{ y \in [1/x, l_{AB}(x)], x \in [a_1, b_1] \} \) if \( 0 < a_1 < b_1 \).

### 3.5 Three vertex intersections

As in the previous case, either \( T \) is contained in one of the regions \( \{ f \geq 0 \} \), \( \{ f \leq 0 \} \), or it is divided in two regions by the conic. This time we use a different method to differentiate the three possibilities, since in the third one we also need to know which are the two vertices through which the conic enters the triangle.

Since ellipses and parabolas define a convex region, a triangle with three vertices on such a curve cannot be divided by it. Thus, if the curve is of one of those types, it suffices once more to evaluate the sign of \( f \) in the triangle, and calculate the full triangle integral or return zero.

If \( f = 0 \) is a hyperbola, transform \( f = 0 \) into \( xy = 1 \). This curve defines two convex regions, limited by the branches \( xy = 1, x < 0 \) and \( xy = 1, x > 0 \). By inspecting the signs of the \( x \)-coordinates of the (transformed) vertices, we can determine in which branch they are.

1. If the three vertices are on the same branch of the hyperbola, the triangle is contained in \( \{ f \geq 0 \} \) or \( \{ f \leq 0 \} \), just determine the sign of \( f \) inside.

2. Otherwise, two vertices lie on one branch and the third vertex lies on the other branch. The integral is calculated as at the end of Section 3.4

Note that the approach used in this case, namely the conversion to a standard conic in order to locate the vertices in relation to the curve, would have worked as well in Section 3.4 when we wanted to decide if the conic separates the triangle in two regions. This would amount to:

1. Ellipse: convert to \( x^2 + y^2 = 1 \) and decide if the third vertex is inside or outside the unit circle.
2. Parabola: convert to \( y = x^2 \) and decide if the third vertex is above or below the parabola.

3. Hyperbola: convert to \( xy = 1 \). If the two intersection vertices have different signs in their \( x \)-coordinates, the curve cannot separate the triangle. Otherwise, decide if the third vertex is in the convex region limited by the branch where the other two vertices are.

4. THE ALGORITHM

Algorithm 4.1 (next page) is a compilation of the steps described in the previous sections, so as to present an overview of the complete algorithm. Some case-by-case methods have not been explicitly written for brevity reasons.

4.1 Practical considerations

In relation to our implementation of this algorithm in MATLAB (almost complete as of May 2010) we would like to comment on numerical aspects that are not considered in our discussion above. First, several transformations suggested (Example 2.2 and the various transformations into standard conics from Section 3) are a source of rounding errors because for small regions the scaling needed is very large. This problem can be solved by avoiding all scalings, i.e. restricting the transformations to rotations and translations, not to a particular standard conic but to a member of some family of them. The result is a slight complication in the integration formulas, but nothing of concern in terms of efficiency.

An additional problem is that in some cases (the calculation suggested in Section 5.3 for the ellipse; Section 2.1) the sought integral is calculated as the difference of two easy integrals which may be orders of magnitude larger than the target, requiring much more precision in order not to lose significant digits.

5. APPLICATION: AN OPTIMAL CONTROL PROBLEM

Many technical processes are described by partial differential equations. Here, it is important to optimize these processes. This leads to optimization problems in an infinite-dimensional setting. As an prototype, we consider the minimization of a convex and quadratic functional subject to a linear elliptic partial differential equation and inequality constraints on the control. Let us briefly introduce the optimal control problem we have in mind.

Let \( \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \) be a bounded domain with \( C^4 \)-boundary \( \Gamma \). For brevity, we will use \( \xi = (x, y) \) to denote points in \( \mathbb{R}^2 \). Let us introduce the following elliptic equation

\[
\begin{align*}
-\nabla \cdot (D(\xi) \nabla u(\xi)) + c(\xi) u(\xi) &= \chi_\Omega f(\xi) & \text{in } \Omega, \\
u(\xi) &= 0 & \text{on } \Gamma.
\end{align*}
\] (3)

Here, the control is denoted by \( f \), while the solution \( u \) of this system is the corresponding state. Thanks to the assumptions below, for each control \( f \in L^2(\Omega) \) there exists a unique response \( u \in H^1_0(\Omega) \), which is a weak solution of equation (3), see e.g. [2] Sect. 5.8. The control acts on a compact polygonal subset \( \Omega' \subset \Omega \). Now, we consider the control problem of minimizing

\[
J(f, u) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega'} (u(\xi) - u_d(\xi))^2 d\xi + \frac{\alpha}{2} \int_{\Omega'} f^2(\xi) d\xi
\]

over all \( f \in L^2(\Omega) \) subject to the elliptic equation (3) and the control constraints

\[
f_a \leq f(\xi) \leq f_b \quad \text{a.e. on } \Omega.
\] (5)

That means, we want find a control \( f \) whose response \( u \) minimizes the distance to some desired state \( u_d \). Let us denote this optimal control problem \( P \) by (P). The set of admissible controls for (P) is given by

\[
F_{ad} = \{ f \in L^2(\Omega) : f_a \leq f \leq f_b \quad \text{a.e. on } \Omega \}.
\]

5.1 Existence and regularity of solutions

Concerning the data of the state equation (3), we make the following smoothness assumption on the data.

**Assumption 5.1.** The coefficients in the differential operator satisfy \( D \in C^{1,1}(\bar{\Omega}) \) and \( c \in C^{0,1}(\bar{\Omega}) \). Moreover, we assume that \( D(x) \geq D_0 > 0 \) and \( c(x) \geq 0 \) for all \( x \in \Omega \).

In order to obtain existence of solutions to (P) as well as a-priori discretization error estimates, we take the following assumptions on the data of the optimization problem.

**Assumption 5.2.** We have \( \alpha > 0 \), \( u_d \in H^1(\Omega) \), and \( f_a, f_b \in \mathbb{R} \) with \( f_a \leq f_b \) a.e. on \( \Omega \).

Due to convexity, the problem under consideration is uniquely solvable, with solution denoted by \( (u^*, f^*) \). Moreover, the solution can be characterized by the following necessary optimality conditions. These conditions are also sufficient since the optimal control problem is convex, see e.g. [1] Ch. 2.

**Theorem 5.3.** Let \( f^* \) be the solution of (P) with associated state \( u^* \). Then there exists an adjoint state \( p^* \in H^1(\Omega) \) such that the adjoint equation

\[
-\nabla \cdot (D(\xi) \nabla p^*(\xi)) + c(\xi) p^*(\xi) = (u^* - u_d)(\xi) & \text{in } \Omega, \\
p^*(\xi) = 0 & \text{on } \Gamma
\]

(6)

and the variational inequality

\[
\int_{\Omega'} (\alpha f^*(\xi) + p^*(\xi))(f(\xi) - f^*(\xi))d\xi \geq 0 \quad \forall f \in F_{ad}
\]

(7)

are satisfied. Moreover, the following pointwise representation of the optimal control holds

\[
f^*(\xi) = \mathcal{P}_{[f_a, f_b]} \left( -\frac{1}{\alpha} p^*(\xi) \right) \quad \text{a.e. on } \Omega'.
\]

Here, \( \mathcal{P}_{[f_a, f_b]}(f) \) denotes the projection of \( f \in \mathbb{R} \) on the interval \([f_a, f_b]\).

Using the projection representation of the optimal control, we can conclude higher regularity of the solution:

**Theorem 5.4.** Under the smoothness assumptions 5.1 and 5.2 it holds \( u^*, p^* \in H^3(\Omega) \), \( f^* \in H^1(\Omega) \).

**Proof.** Since we have \( p^* \in H^1(\Omega) \) by the previous theorem, the projection representation (8) implies that the optimal control has the same regularity \( f^* \in H^1(\Omega) \). Then the right-hand sides of (3) and (6) are functions in \( H^3(\Omega) \). Standard regularity results for elliptic partial differential equations, e.g. [2] Thm. 8.13, yield \( u^*, p^* \in H^3(\Omega) \). \( \square \)
Algorithm 4.1. Integrate a polynomial \( g(x, y) \) of degree 4 on the intersection of a triangle \( T \) and the region \( \{ f \geq 0 \} \) determined by a quadratic polynomial \( f(x, y) \).

1. If \( C := \{ f = 0 \} \) is a degenerate conic, go to step 9.
2. Calculate the intersections of \( C \) with each side of \( T \).
3. If all sides of \( T \) are not free, let \( L := \{ T_1, \ldots, T_n \} \) be a list of free triangular pieces as in Lemma 2.4 and go to step 6.
4. Otherwise, use Lemma 2.7 or Lemma 2.8 to obtain a list \( L := \{ T_1, \ldots, T_n \} \) of free or almost-free triangular pieces.
5. For each triangle in \( L \), if it is not free, substitute it in the list by the free pieces provided by Lemma 2.9.
6. Determine the type of \( C \).
7. Initialize \( S = 0 \). For each triangle \( T_i \) in \( L \):
   7.1. Let \( Z_i \) be the intersection of the border of \( T_i \) and \( C \).
   7.2. If \( Z_i = 0 \) or one non-vertex point:
      A. If \( C \) is an ellipse, use Algorithm 3.1 to know the relative position of \( C \) and \( T_i \).
         i. If \( C \) is contained in \( T_i \), determine the sign of \( f \) inside the ellipse. Let \( I \) be the integral of \( g \) on the bounded region inside \( C \), or its complementary with respect to the full triangle, as needed.
         ii. In any other case, determine the sign of \( f \) inside \( T_i \). If it is positive, let \( I = \int_{T_i} g \), otherwise let \( I = 0 \).
      B. If \( C \) is not an ellipse, determine the sign of \( f \) inside \( T_i \). If it is positive, let \( I = \int_{T_i} g \), otherwise let \( I = 0 \).
      C. Add \( I \) to \( S \).
   7.3. If \( Z_i \) is one vertex: determine the sign of \( f \) in \( T_i \). If it is positive let \( I = \int_{T_i} g \), otherwise let \( I = 0 \). Add \( I \) to \( S \).
   7.4. If \( Z_i \) is two vertices:
      A. Calculate the number of intersections of \( C \) with the segment from the middle point of the two vertices to the third vertex.
      B. If there are none, determine the sign of \( f \) inside \( T_i \). If positive, let \( I = \int_{T_i} g \), otherwise let \( I = 0 \). Add \( I \) to \( S \).
      C. If there is one, determine which of the two regions is the correct one, by evaluating \( f \) in a suitable point.
         i. If \( C \) is an ellipse, transform it into \( x^2 + y^2 = 1 \). Calculate the integral on the circular segment. Let \( I \) be equal to that value or its complementary with respect to the full triangle.
         ii. If \( C \) is a parabola, transform it into \( y = x^2 \). Calculate the integral between the segment and the arc of parabola (the segment is always above). Let \( I \) be equal to that value or its complementary with respect to the full triangle.
         iii. If \( C \) is a hyperbola, transform it into \( xy = 1 \). Calculate the integral between the segment and the arc of hyperbola (which one is above depends on which branch the vertices are in). Let \( I \) be equal to that value or its complementary with respect to the full triangle.
         iv. Add \( I \) to \( S \).
   7.5. If \( Z_i \) is three vertices:
      A. If \( C \) is an ellipse or a parabola, determine the sign of \( f \) inside \( T_i \). If it is positive, let \( I = \int_{T_i} g \), otherwise let \( I = 0 \).
      B. If \( C \) is a hyperbola, transform it into \( xy = 1 \) and determine in which branch does each vertex lie.
         i. All in one branch: determine the sign of \( f \) inside \( T_i \). If it is positive, let \( I = \int_{T_i} g \), otherwise let \( I = 0 \).
         ii. Two vertices \( A, B \) in one branch and the third vertex in the other branch: calculate the integral between the segment \( AB \) and the arc of hyperbola (which one is above depends on which branch the vertices are in). Determine the sign of \( f \) in the middle point of \( AB \). If positive, let \( I \) be equal to the calculated integral; if negative, to its complementary with respect to the full triangle.
      C. Add \( I \) to \( S \).
8. Output \( C \) and stop.
9. Determine the type of degenerate conic.
   9.1. If \( C \) is empty, one point, or a double line, determine the general sign of \( f \). If it is positive, let \( S = \int_T g \), otherwise let \( S = 0 \). Output \( S \) and stop.
   9.2. Otherwise, if \( C \) is two parallel lines, convert it to \( x^2 - x = 0 \); if \( C \) is two crossing lines, convert it to \( xy = 0 \).
   9.3. Determine the position of the vertices with respect to the lines by examining the coordinates of their images by the transformation.
      A. If all three vertices are in one of the regions, determine the sign of \( f \) inside \( T \). If it is positive, let \( S = \int_T g \), otherwise let \( S = 0 \). Output \( S \) and stop.
      B. Otherwise, determine the region(s) of integration by evaluating the sign of \( f \) at some vertex not on the conic. Write the region of integration as a sum of triangles with \( \pm 1 \) coefficients. Calculate the integral according to this. Output the result and stop. (A case by case method can be easily written.)
5.2 Discretization and error estimate

Now, we turn to the discretization of (P). To that end, let us introduce a family of quasi-uniform triangulations of $\Omega$, denoted by $\{T_h\}_{h>0}$. Each triangulation is assumed to exactly fit the boundary of $\Omega$, such that $\tilde{\Omega} = \cup_{T \in T_h} T$. This implies that elements of $T_h$ lying on the boundary are curved. We further assume that for each $T \in T_h$ there is a mapping $\Phi_T$ mapping the standard simplex $\hat{T}$ to $T$. Moreover, we require that the intersection of every triangle $T \in T_h$ with the boundary of the control domain $\Omega'$ is empty. That is, the boundary of $\Omega'$ in $\Omega$ is completely resolved by edges of triangles.

With a triangulation we associate the following space of functions $V_h = \{v \in C(\Omega) \mid \Phi_T(v|\hat{T}) \in P_2(\hat{T}) \forall T \in T_h\}$, which implies that functions $v_h \in V_h$ are polynomials of degree 2 on each triangular element. Since $\Omega'$ is a compact subset of $\Omega$, there is a mesh size $h_0 > 0$ such that all elements $T \in T_h$ with $\Omega' \cap T \neq \emptyset$ are triangular. Hence, the above developed optimal control problem can be applied for functions $v_h \in V_h$ with support in $\Omega'$.

Then the discrete optimal control problem can be written as: minimize $J(u_h, f_h)$ subject to $u_h \in V_h$, $f_h \in F_{ad}$

$$
\int_{\hat{\Omega}} (D\nabla u_h \cdot \nabla v_h + c u_h v_h) d\xi = \int_{\hat{\Omega}} f_h v_h d\xi \quad \forall v_h \in V_h.
$$

Note that we did not explicitly require $f_h$ to be in a finite-dimensional subspace. Nevertheless, if $(u_h^*, f_h^*)$ is a solution of the discrete problem, there exists a discrete adjoint state $p_h^* \in V_h$ satisfying

$$
\int_{\hat{\Omega}} (D\nabla p_h^* \cdot \nabla v_h + c p_h^* v_h) d\xi = \int_{\hat{\Omega}} (u_h^* - u_a) v_h d\xi, \quad \forall v_h \in V_h
$$

and

$$
f_h^* = P_{[f_a, f_h]} \left( \frac{1}{\alpha} p_h^* \right). \tag{11}
$$

Due to this projection representation, the control is implicitly discretized as the truncation of a function from the finite-dimensional space $V_h$.

**Theorem 5.5.** Let $(u_h^*, f_h^*, p_h^*)$ be the solution of the discretized optimality system $\Box$. Then there is a constant $c > 0$ independent of the mesh size $h$ such that

$$
\|f_h^* - f^*\|_{L^2(\Omega)} + \|u_h^* - u^*\|_{H^1(\Omega)} + \|p_h^* - p^*\|_{H^1(\Omega)} \leq c h^3.
$$

**Proof.** Due to the approximation results of [1], we have that the Assumption 2.4 in [3] is satisfied with $Z = H^1(\Omega) \cap H_0^1(\Omega)$ and convergence order $h^3$. Then the claim follows by a direct application of [3] Thm. 2.4.

Known estimates for piecewise linear elements yield a convergence order of $h^2$ only, compare [3]. In the two-dimensional case, i.e. $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, the number of unknowns $N = 2 \dim V_h$ in the discretized problem is proportional to $h^{-2}$. Hence, our result implies that the approximation error is proportional to $N^{-3/2}$, whereas the use of linear polynomials only reduces the error like $N^{-1}$. This clearly shows that for optimal control problems as considered here, the use of piecewise quadratic approximations is preferable.

5.3 Solution method

In order to substitute $f_h$ in $\Box$ by the projection $\Box$, integrals

$$
\int_{\{a_1 p_h < f_a\}} f_a v_h d\xi, \quad \int_{\{f_a \leq a_1 p_h \leq f_b\}} p_h v_h d\xi
$$

have to be evaluated for piecewise quadratic polynomials $v_h \in V_h$. This means, any solution method for the discretized problem encounters the difficulties of integrating over regions bounded by triangles and conics.

The system consisting of the equation $\Box$--$\Box$ can be solved by means of a semi-smooth Newton method, see e.g. [3]. Within each step of the method, the non-smooth equation $\Box$ is replaced by a linearized version

$$
\chi_{\{-a_1 p_h \notin \{f_a, f_b\}\}} \left( f_h - \frac{1}{\alpha} p_h \right) = 0 \quad \text{on } \Omega',
$$

where $p_h^*$ is the adjoint state given by the previous step, and $\chi_A$ denotes the characteristic function of a set $A$. Multiplying this equation by a test function $v_h \in V_h$ and integrating on $\Omega'$, we obtain

$$
0 = \int_{\{f_a < f_h \leq \alpha p_h\}} f_h - \frac{1}{\alpha} p_h v_h d\xi = \sum_{T \in T_h, T \cap \Omega' \neq \emptyset} \int_{T \cap \{-a_1 p_h \notin \{f_a, f_b\}\}} f_h v_h d\xi
$$

for all $v_h \in V_h$. Here, it is important to be able to evaluate the integrals

$$
\int_{T \cap \{-a_1 p_h \notin \{f_a, f_b\}\}} \mathcal{P}_{[f_a, f_h]} \left( -\frac{1}{\alpha} p_h \right) v_h d\xi
$$

and

$$
\int_{T \cap \{-a_1 p_h \notin \{f_a, f_b\}\}} f_h v_h d\xi,
$$

which can be transformed to the type in the previous sections.

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