# Layered Media Scattering: Fokas Integral Equations and Boundary Perturbation Methods

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#### Hamiltonian PDEs: W. Craig's 60th (Fields)

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## Brown University Graduation Procession (1998)



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## IMACS Waves Conference (Athens, GA, 1999)



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## Collaborators and References

Collaborator on this project:

• David Ambrose (Drexel)

Thanks to:

- NSF (DMS-1115333)
- DOE (DE–SC0001549)

References:

- Ablowitz, Fokas, & Musslimani, "On a new non-local formulation of water waves," *JFM*, 562 (2006).
- Fokas, "A unified approach to boundary value problems," (2008).
- **•** Spence & Fokas, "A new transform method I & II," *PRSL (A)*, 466 (2010).
- Deconinck & Oliveras, "The instability of periodic surface gravity waves," *JFM*, 675 (2011).

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## Layered Media Scattering

- The interaction of acoustic or electromagnetic waves with periodic structures plays an important role in many scientific problems, e.g.,
	- Seismic imaging.
	- Underwater acoustics,
	- Plasmonic nanostructures for biosensing,
	- Plasmonic solar cells.

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## Seismic Imaging



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#### Underwater Acoustics



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#### Plasmonic Nanostructures for Biosensing



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#### Plasmonic Solar Cells



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#### Numerical Simulation

- The ability to robustly simulate scattered fields with high accuracy is of fundamental importance.
- Here we focus upon
	- **1** the high–order numerical simulation
	- 2 of solutions of Helmholtz equations
	- <sup>3</sup> coupled across irregular (non–trivial) interfaces.
- **•** Based upon a new surface formulation, we present a novel Integral Equation Method inspired by recent developments of Fokas and collaborators.
- Further, we extend this method using a Boundary Perturbation Method to provide an accelerated approach.

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#### Numerical Methods: Volumetric and Surface

- Many numerical algorithms have been devised for the simulation of these problems, for instance (in the geoscience literature):
	- <sup>1</sup> Finite Differences (Pratt, 1990),
	- <sup>2</sup> Finite Elements (Zienkiewicz, 1977),
	- <sup>3</sup> Spectral Elements (Komatitsch, 2002).
- These methods suffer from the requirement that they discretize the full volume of the problem domain which results in both:
	- <sup>1</sup> A prohibitive number of degrees of freedom,
	- <sup>2</sup> The difficult question of appropriately specifying a **far–field** boundary condition explicitly.
- Surface methods are an appealing alternative and those based upon Boundary Integrals (BIM) or Boundary Elements (BEM) are very popular (e.g., Sanchez–Sesma, 1989).

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## Prototype Problem: Helmholtz Equation

To illustrate the issues, consider the prototype problem: Solve the Helmholtz equation subject to Dirichlet boundary conditions

$$
\Delta v + k^2 v = 0, \quad y > g(x),
$$
  

$$
v(x, g(x)) = \xi(x), \quad \text{UPC } \{v\} = 0,
$$

and produce the (exterior) Neumann data

$$
\nu(x) = \left[ -\partial_y u + \nabla_x g \cdot \nabla_x u \right]_{y=g(x)}.
$$

**•** This mapping

 $L(q): \xi \rightarrow \nu$ ,

is the Dirichlet–Neumann Operator (DNO) which is of central importance in many fields, including water waves, acoustics, electromagnetics, and elasticity.

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#### Maue's Method

A **standard BIM** in **acoustics**, Maue's Method, relates the **surface normal derivative**,  $\nu(x)$ , to (essentially) the **Dirichlet data**,  $\psi$ 

$$
\nu(x) - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} K(x, x') \nu(x') \ dx' = \psi(x)
$$

where

$$
K(x, x') = (i\pi k/2)\rho(x, x')H_1^{(1)}(k\rho(x, x'))\zeta(x, x'),
$$

and

$$
\rho(x, x') = \sqrt{(x - x')^2 + (g(x) - g(x'))^2}
$$
  

$$
\zeta(x, x') = \frac{g(x) - g(x') - (\partial_x g(x))(x - x')}{(x - x')^2 + (g(x) - g(x'))^2}.
$$

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## Maue's Method: Periodic Gratings

● If *g* is *d*–periodic we can rewrite this as

$$
\nu(x) - \int_0^d K_{\text{per}}(x, x') \nu(x') \ dx' = \psi(x)
$$

where

$$
K_{\text{per}}(x,x')=\sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty}K(x,x'+md).
$$

- The convergence of this series is extremely slow and must be accelerated, e.g., by one of:
	- **1** the Spectral Representation,
	- 2 the Kummer Transformation,
	- the Lattice Sum Method.
	- the Ewald Transformation,
	- <sup>5</sup> an Integral Representation.

See Kurkcu & Reitich (*JCP*, 228 (2009)) f[or](#page-12-0) [a](#page-14-0) [ni](#page-12-0)[ce](#page-13-0)[s](#page-3-0)[u](#page-4-0)[r](#page-14-0)[v](#page-15-0)[e](#page-3-0)[y](#page-4-0)[.](#page-14-0)

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#### Surface Methods

- BIM/BEM require only discretization of the layer interfaces.
- Due to the choice of the Green's function, they satisfy the far–field boundary condition exactly.
- While these methods can deliver high–accuracy simulations with greatly reduced operation counts, there are several difficulties:
	- **1** Devising and implementing quadrature rules which respect the singularities in the Green's function,
	- <sup>2</sup> Preconditioned iterative methods (accelerated, e.g., by Fast Multipoles) for the dense linear systems which arise.
- **Later in the talk we will discuss Boundary Perturbation Methods** (BPM) which which avoid these complications, e.g.,
	- <sup>1</sup> **Field Expansions**: Bruno & Reitich (1993);
	- <sup>2</sup> **Operator Expansions**: Milder (1991), Craig & Sulem (1993);
	- **Transformed Field Expansions: DPN & Reitich (1999).**

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## The Method of Fokas

- We utilize Fokas' approach to discover (Fokas) Integral Equations (FIE) satisfied by the Dirichlet–Neumann Operator (DNO) and its corresponding Dirichlet data.
- These formulas do *not* involve the fundamental solution, but rather smooth, "conjugated," solutions of the periodic Helmholtz problem.
- This means simple quadrature rules (e.g., Nyström's Method) may be utilized.
- **•** Further, periodization is unnecessary.
- Importantly, due to a clever **alternative** to the standard Green's Identity, the *derivative* of the interface never appears.
- Thus, configurations of rather low smoothness can be accommodated in comparison with standard approaches.

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## Key to Deriving FIE: A Divergence Lemma

#### **Lemma (Fokas)** If

$$
Q^{(k)} := \partial_y \phi \left( \Delta \psi + k^2 \psi \right) + \left( \Delta \phi + k^2 \phi \right) \partial_y \psi,
$$

then

$$
Q^{(k)} = \text{div}_x \left[ \partial_y \phi (\nabla_x \psi) + \nabla_x \phi (\partial_y \psi) \right]
$$
  
+  $\partial_y \left[ \partial_y \phi (\partial_y \psi) - \nabla_x \phi \cdot (\nabla_x \psi) + k^2 \phi \psi \right]$   
=  $\text{div}_x \left[ F^{(x)} \right] + \partial_y \left[ F^{(y)} + F^{(k)} \right],$ 

where

$$
F^{(x)} := \partial_y \phi(\nabla_x \psi) + \nabla_x \phi(\partial_y \psi), \quad F^{(y)} := \partial_y \phi(\partial_y \psi) - \nabla_x \phi \cdot (\nabla_x \psi),
$$

$$
F^{(k)} := k^2 \phi \psi.
$$

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## Fokas' Integral Relation

• Define the domain

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$$
\Omega:=\left\{\bar{\ell}+\ell(x)
$$

- Provided that  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  solve the Helmholtz equation we have  $Q^{(k)} = 0$ .
- If  $\phi$  is  $\alpha$ –quasiperiodic and  $\psi$  is ( $-\alpha$ )–quasiperiodic then the Divergence Theorem tells us

$$
0 = \int_{\Omega} Q^{(k)} dV = \int_{\partial \Omega} F \cdot \hat{n} dS
$$
  
= 
$$
\int_{0}^{d} (F^{(x)} \cdot \nabla_{x} \ell - F^{(y)} - F^{(k)})_{y = \bar{\ell} + \ell(x)} dx
$$
  
+ 
$$
\int_{0}^{d} (F^{(x)} \cdot (-\nabla_{x} u) + F^{(y)} + F^{(k)})_{y = \bar{u} + u(x)} dx,
$$

since the terms  $F^{(x)}$ ,  $F^{(y)}$ , and  $F^{(k)}$  are *p[eri](#page-16-0)[od](#page-18-0)[ic](#page-16-0)*[.](#page-17-0)

## Surface Traces and Derivatives

If we define the surface traces

$$
\xi(x) := \phi(x, \overline{\ell} + \ell(x)), \quad \zeta(x) := \phi(x, \overline{u} + u(x)),
$$

then tangential derivatives are given by

$$
\nabla_x \xi(x) := \left[\nabla_x \phi + (\nabla_x \ell) \partial_y \phi\right]_{y = \bar{\ell} + \ell(x)},
$$
  

$$
\nabla_x \zeta(x) := \left[\nabla_x \phi + (\nabla_x u) \partial_y \phi\right]_{y = \bar{u} + u(x)}.
$$

Recall, the definitions of the DNOs give the normal derivatives

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$$
L(x) := [-\partial_y \phi + \nabla_x \ell \cdot \nabla_x \phi]_{y = \overline{\ell} + \ell(x)},
$$
  

$$
U(x) := [\partial_y \phi - \nabla_x u \cdot \nabla_x \phi]_{y = \overline{u} + u(x)},
$$

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#### Fokas' Relation

• In terms of these, Fokas' relation becomes

$$
\int_0^d (\partial_y \psi)_{y=\bar{u}+u(x)} U \, dx + \int_0^d (\partial_y \psi)_{y=\bar{\ell}+\ell(x)} L \, dx
$$
  
= 
$$
\int_0^d (\nabla_x \psi)_{y=\bar{u}+u(x)} \cdot \nabla_x \zeta \, dx - \int_0^d (\nabla_x \psi)_{y=\bar{\ell}+\ell(x)} \cdot \nabla_x \xi \, dx
$$
  
- 
$$
\int_0^d k^2(\psi)_{y=\bar{u}+u(x)} \zeta \, dx + \int_0^d k^2(\psi)_{y=\bar{\ell}+\ell(x)} \xi \, dx.
$$

- There are three terms at the top and three at the bottom.
- <span id="page-19-0"></span>• We will choose the test function  $\psi$  very carefully, but notice that derivatives are not applied to the boundary shapes,  $u$  and  $\ell$ .

## The Top Layer

- We give the details of the Fokas Integral Equation (FIE) relating the DNO, *L*, and its Dirichlet data, ξ, in the **top layer**.
- Analogous derivations can be made for the bottom and middle layers.
- Consider upward propagating,  $\alpha$ –quasiperiodic solutions of

$$
\Delta \phi + k^2 \phi = 0 \qquad \qquad \bar{\ell} + \ell(x) < y < \bar{u} \\ \phi = \xi \qquad \qquad y = \bar{\ell} + \ell(x).
$$

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## The Rayleigh Expansion

The Rayleigh Expansion: For  $y > \bar{u}$ , upward propagating,  $\alpha$ –quasiperiodic solutions of Helmholtz equation can be written

$$
\phi(x,y)=\sum_{q=-\infty}^{\infty}\hat{\zeta}_q e^{i\alpha_q\cdot x+i\beta_q(y-\bar{u})},
$$

where

$$
\alpha_q:=\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1+2\pi q_1/d_1 \\ \alpha_2+2\pi q_2/d_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta_q:=\begin{cases} \sqrt{k^2-|\alpha_q|^2} & q\in\mathcal{U} \\ i\sqrt{|\alpha_q|^2-k^2} & q\not\in\mathcal{U} \end{cases},
$$

and the propagating modes are

$$
\mathcal{U}:=\left\{q\mid\,|\alpha_q|^2< k^2\right\}.
$$

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#### A Test Function

Evaluating the Rayleigh Expansion at  $y = \bar{u}$  gives  $\zeta(x)=\sum_{q=-\infty}^{\infty}\hat{\zeta}_qe^{i\alpha_q\cdot x},$  so we can compute the DNO at  $y=\bar{u}$ :

$$
U=\partial_y \phi(x,\bar{u})=\sum_{q=-\infty}^{\infty} (i\beta_q)\hat{\zeta}_q e^{i\alpha_q\cdot x}=(i\beta_D)\zeta.
$$

Consider the  $(-\alpha)$ –quasiperiodic "test function"

$$
\psi(x,y)=e^{-i\alpha_q\cdot x+i\beta_q(y-\bar{\ell})},
$$

and the upper boundary terms (1st, 3rd, 5th terms in Fokas' Relation)

$$
R(x):=(\partial_y\psi)_{y=\bar{u}}U-(\nabla_x\psi)_{y=\bar{u}}\cdot\nabla_x\zeta+k^2(\psi)_{y=\bar{u}}\zeta.
$$

Using the fact that  $|\alpha_p|^2 + \beta_p^2 = k^2$  we can show  $\int_0^d R(x) dx = 0$ .

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### Integral Equation for the Upper Layer DNO

Therefore, we can write

$$
\int_0^d (\partial_y \psi)_{y=\bar{\ell}+\ell(x)} L \, dx = - \int_0^d (\nabla_x \psi)_{y=\bar{\ell}+\ell(x)} \cdot \nabla_x \xi \, dx + \int_0^d k^2(\psi)_{y=\bar{\ell}+\ell(x)} \xi \, dx.
$$

Further, with  $\psi$  defined above

$$
\int_0^d (i\beta_p) e^{i\beta_p \ell(x)} e^{-i\alpha_p x} L \, dx = \int_0^d (i\alpha_p) e^{i\beta_p \ell(x)} e^{-i\alpha_p x} \cdot \nabla_x \xi \, dx
$$
\n
$$
+ \int_0^d k^2 e^{i\beta_p \ell(x)} e^{-i\alpha_p x} \xi \, dx.
$$

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## Integral Formula for Upper Layer DNO

We write this integral relation as  $\hat{A}_{\rho}\left[\c{L}\right]=\hat{R}_{\rho}\left[\c{L}\right]$  , where

$$
\hat{A}_{p}[L] = \int_{0}^{d} (i\beta_{p}) e^{i\beta_{p}\ell} e^{-i\alpha_{p} \cdot x} L(x) dx,
$$

$$
\hat{B}_{p}[\xi] = \int_{0}^{d} e^{i\beta_{p}\ell} e^{-i\alpha_{p} \cdot x} \left\{ \frac{i\alpha_{p}}{i\beta_{p}} \cdot \nabla_{x} + \frac{k^{2}}{i\beta_{p}} \right\} \xi(x) dx.
$$

We recognize the inverse Fourier transform in these formulas and solve, instead, the equation  $A[L] = B[\xi]$ , where

$$
A=\frac{1}{|d|}\sum_{p=-\infty}^{\infty}\hat{A}_{p}e^{i\alpha_{p}\tilde{x}},\quad R=\frac{1}{|d|}\sum_{p=-\infty}^{\infty}\hat{B}_{p}e^{i\alpha_{p}\tilde{x}}.
$$

**Numerical Method:** We apply Nyström's Method to the equation  $A[L] = B[\xi]$ .

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## Governing Equations: Multiply–Layered Material



Consider a multiply–layered material with *M* many interfaces at

$$
y = \bar{g}^{(m)} + g^{(m)}(x_1, x_2)
$$
  
=  $\bar{g}^{(m)} + g^{(m)}(x),$   
 $1 \le m \le M,$ 

separating  $(M + 1)$ –many layers, with (upward pointing) normals

$$
N^{(m)}:=(-\nabla_x g^{(m)},1)^T.
$$

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<span id="page-25-0"></span> $A \equiv \mathbf{1} \times \mathbf{1} \times \mathbf{1} \times \mathbf{1}$ 

#### Plane–Wave Incidence



In each layer we assume a constant speed *c* (*m*) and that the structure is **insonified** (illuminated) from above by plane–wave acoustic incidence

$$
u^{i}(x, y, t) = e^{-i\omega t} e^{i(\alpha \cdot x - \beta y)}
$$
  
=: 
$$
e^{-i\omega t} v^{i}(x, y).
$$

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## Time–Harmonic Scattering



In each layer the quantity  $\kappa^{(m)}=\omega/c^{(m)}$  specifies both:

- The material properties, and
- the frequency of radiation.

These are common to both the incident and scattered acoustic fields in the structure.

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## Helmholtz Equations



The **reduced** scattered acoustic fields satisfy Helmholtz equations in each layer:

 $\Delta V^{(m)} + (k^{(m)})^2 V^{(m)} = 0,$  $\bar{g}^{(m+1)} {+} g^{(m+1)} < {\color{black} y} < \bar{g}^{(m)} {+} g^{(m)}.$ 

 $(0,1)$   $(0,1)$   $(0,1)$   $(1,1$ 

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#### Boundary Conditions

• It is well–known (Petit, 1980) that the problem can be restated as a time–harmonic one of time–independent **reduced** scattered fields, *v* (*m*) (*x*, *y*), which, in each layer, are quasiperiodic

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$$
v^{(m)}(x+d,y)=e^{i(\alpha \cdot d)}v^{(m)}(x,y).
$$

**•** Boundary conditions give the coupling, for  $1 \le m \le M$ ,

$$
v^{(m-1)} - v^{(m)} = \zeta^{(m)} \qquad y = \bar{g}^{(m)} + g^{(m)}(x),
$$
  

$$
\partial_{N^{(m)}} \left[ v^{(m-1)} - v^{(m)} \right] = \psi^{(m)}, \qquad y = \bar{g}^{(m)} + g^{(m)}(x).
$$

• In the case of insonification from above

$$
\zeta^{(1)} = -v^i\Big|_{y = \bar{g}^{(1)} + g^{(1)}(x)}, \quad \psi^{(1)} = -\partial_{N^{(1)}} v^i\Big|_{y = \bar{g}^{(1)} + g^{(1)}(x)},
$$
  

$$
\zeta^{(m)} \equiv \psi^{(m)} \equiv 0, \quad 2 \le m \le M.
$$

## Boundary Formulation: Dirichlet Traces



We define the Lower Dirichlet trace  $(1 \le m \le M)$ :  $V^{(m-1),l} := V^{(m-1)}\Big|_{\bar{g}^{(m)}+g^{(m)}(x)},$ 

and the Upper Dirichlet trace  $(1 \le m \le M)$ :

$$
V^{(m),u} := V^{(m)}\Big|_{\bar{g}^{(m)}+g^{(m)}(x)}.
$$

The Dirichlet boundary conditions are:

$$
V^{(m-1),1}-V^{(m),u}=\zeta^{(m)}, \quad 1 \leq m \leq M.
$$

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## Boundary Formulation: Neumann Traces



We define the Lower Neumann trace  $(1 \le m \le M)$ :  $\tilde{V}^{(m-1),l} := -\partial_{N^{(m)}} V^{(m-1)} \Big|_{y = \bar{g}^{(m)} + g^{(m)}(x)},$ 

and the Upper Neumann trace  $(1 < m < M)$ :

$$
\tilde{V}^{(m),u}:=\left.\partial_{N^{(m)}}{V}^{(m)}\right|_{y=\bar{g}^{(m)}+g^{(m)}(x)}
$$

The Neumann boundary conditions are:

 $-V^{(m-1),l}-V^{(m),u} = \psi^{(m)}, \quad 1 \leq m \leq M.$ 

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## Boundary Formulation: DNOs

- We now have (2*M*) equations for (4*M*) unknown functions.
- This allows us to eliminate the upper traces  $\{\tilde{V}^{(m),u}, V^{(m),u}\}$  in favor of the lower ones  $\{\tilde{V}^{(m),l}, V^{(m),l}\}$  by

$$
V^{(m),u} = V^{(m-1),l} - \zeta^{(m)} \t 1 \le m \le M
$$
  

$$
\tilde{V}^{(m),u} = -\tilde{V}^{(m-1),l} - \psi^{(m)} \t 1 \le m \le M.
$$

We can generate (2*M*) many more equations by defining the Dirichlet–Neumann Operators (DNOs)

$$
G[V^{(0),l}]:=\tilde{V}^{(0),l}
$$

$$
H(m)[V^{(m),u},V^{(m),l}] = \begin{pmatrix} H^{uu}(m) & H^{ul}(m) \\ H^{lu}(m) & H^{ll}(m) \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V^{(m),u} \\ V^{(m),l} \end{bmatrix} := \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{V}^{(m),u} \\ \tilde{V}^{(m),l} \end{pmatrix}
$$

$$
J[V^{(M),u}] := \tilde{V}^{(M),u},
$$

which relate the Dirichlet quantities,  $\{V^{(m), \nu}, V^{(m), \prime}\}$ , to the Neumann traces,  $\{\tilde{V}^{(m),u}, \tilde{V}^{(m),l}\}.$  $(0,1)$   $(0,1)$   $(0,1)$   $(1,1$ 

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## Boundary Formulation: Integral Operators

- In a moment we will derive integral operators *A* and *R* which relate the Dirichlet data,  $V^{(m),l}$ , to the Neumann data,  $\widetilde{V}^{(m),l}$ .
- More specifically, for the top layer

$$
A(0)\tilde{V}^{(0),l}-R(0)V^{(0),l}=0,
$$

for the middle layer

$$
\begin{pmatrix}\nA^{uu}(m) & A^{ul}(m) \\
A^{lu}(m) & A^{ll}(m)\n\end{pmatrix}\n\begin{pmatrix}\n\tilde{V}^{(m),u} \\
\tilde{V}^{(m),l}\n\end{pmatrix}\n-\n\begin{pmatrix}\nR^{uu}(m) & R^{ul}(m) \\
R^{lu}(m) & R^{ll}(m)\n\end{pmatrix}\n\begin{pmatrix}\nV^{(m),u} \\
V^{(m),l}\n\end{pmatrix}\n=\n\begin{pmatrix}\n0 \\
0\n\end{pmatrix}\n1 \le m \le M - 1,
$$

and for the bottom layer

$$
A(M)\tilde{V}^{(M),u} - R(M)V^{(M),u} = 0.
$$

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## Boundary Formulation: Linear System

Eliminating the upper traces, we write

$$
A(0)\tilde{V}^{(0),l}-R(0)V^{(0),l}=0,
$$

and

$$
\begin{pmatrix}\nA^{uu}(m) & A^{ul}(m) \\
A^{lu}(m) & A^{ll}(m)\n\end{pmatrix}\n\begin{pmatrix}\n-\tilde{V}^{(m-1),l} - \psi^{(m)} \\
\tilde{V}^{(m),l}\n\end{pmatrix}\n-\n\begin{pmatrix}\nR^{uu}(m) & R^{ul}(m) \\
R^{lu}(m) & R^{ll}(m)\n\end{pmatrix}\n\begin{pmatrix}\nV^{(m-1),l} - \zeta^{(m)} \\
V^{(m),l}\n\end{pmatrix}\n=\n\begin{pmatrix}\n0 \\
0\n\end{pmatrix}\n\quad 1 \leq m \leq M - 1,
$$

and

$$
A(M)[-\tilde{V}^{(M-1),l}-\psi^{(M)}]-R(M)[V^{(M-1),l}-\zeta^{(M)}]=0.
$$

Simplifying, this can be written as

<span id="page-34-0"></span>
$$
MV^{(1)} = Q.
$$

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#### Boundary Formulation: Operator, Data, and Unknown

In this linear system,  $MV^{(1)} = Q$ , we have

$$
\mathbf{M} := \begin{pmatrix} A(0) & -R(0) & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ -A^{uu}(1) & -B^{uu}(1) & A^{ul}(1) & -B^{ul}(1) & \cdots & 0 \\ -A^{lu}(1) & -B^{lu}(1) & A^{ll}(1) & -B^{ll}(1) & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & -A(M) & -B(M) \end{pmatrix}
$$

and

$$
\mathbf{V}^{(1)} := \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{V}^{(0),I} \\ V^{(0),I} \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{V}^{(M-1),I} \\ V^{(M-1),I} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{Q} := \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ A^{uu}(1)\psi^{(1)} - R^{uu}(1)\zeta^{(1)} \\ A^{lu}(1)\psi^{(1)} - R^{lu}(1)\zeta^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ A(M)\psi^{(M)} - R(M)\zeta^{(M)} \end{pmatrix}.
$$

<span id="page-35-0"></span>,

#### Numerical Results

- As we mentioned above, our numerical procedure is to apply Nyström's Method to the linear system  $MV^{(1)} = Q$ .
- We conduct a series of tests based upon an exact solution (possible if we ease the restriction that the data come from plane–wave incidence).
- For this we consider the functions

<span id="page-36-0"></span>
$$
v_r^{(m)} = A^{(m)}e^{i\alpha_r \cdot x + i\beta_r^{(m)}y} + B^{(m)}e^{i\alpha_r \cdot x - i\beta_r^{(m)}y},
$$

 $\mathsf{with}\ \mathsf{A}^{(M)}=\mathsf{B}^{(0)}=\mathsf{0}.$ 

- These are outgoing,  $\alpha$ -quasiperiodic solutions of the Helmholtz equation, however, these do not correspond to plane–wave incidence.
- We measure the maximum (relative) difference between the computed and exact values of the lower Dirichlet and Neuman traces. イロト イ押ト イヨト イヨト

## Convergence Studies: Two–Dimensional Profiles

In two dimensions we consider: A smooth profile

 $f_s(x_1) = \cos(x_1),$ 

a rough (*C* <sup>4</sup> but not *C* 5 ) profile

$$
f_r(x_1)=(2\times 10^{-4})\left\{x_1^4(2\pi-x_1)^4-(128\pi^8)/315\right\},\,
$$

and a Lipschitz profile

$$
f_L(x) = \begin{cases} -(2/\pi)x + 1, & 0 \le x \le \pi \\ (2/\pi)x - 3, & \pi \le x \le 2\pi \end{cases}
$$

**Remark:** We point out that all three profiles have zero mean, approximate amplitude 2, and maximum slope of roughly 1.

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.

## Convergence Studies: Three–Dimensional Profiles

In three dimensions we consider: A smooth profile

$$
\tilde{f}_s(x_1,x_2)=\cos(x_1+x_2),
$$

a rough (*C* <sup>2</sup> but not *C* 3 ) profile

$$
\tilde{f}_r(x_1,x_2)=(2/9\times 10^{-3})\left\{x_1^2(2\pi-x_1)^2x_2^2(2\pi-x_2)^2-(64\pi^8)/225\right\},\,
$$

and a Lipschitz profile

$$
\tilde{f}_L(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{3} + \begin{cases}\n-1 + (2/\pi)x_1, & x_1 \le x_2 \le 2\pi - x_1 \\
3 - (2/\pi)x_2, & x_2 > x_1, x_2 > 2\pi - x_1 \\
3 - (2/\pi)x_1, & 2\pi - x_1 < x_2 < x_1 \\
-1 + (2/\pi)x_2, & x_2 < x_1, x_2 < 2\pi - x_1\n\end{cases}.
$$

**Remark:** We point out that all three profiles have zero mean, approximate amplitude 2, and maximum slope [o](#page-37-0)f [ro](#page-39-0)[ug](#page-38-0)[h](#page-39-0)[ly](#page-35-0) [1](#page-44-0)[.](#page-45-0)

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## Smooth, Smooth Configuration (2D)



Relative error versus number of gridpoints for the **two–dimensional smooth, smooth** configuration:

$$
\beta^{(0)} = 1.1, \quad \beta^{(1)} = 2.2, \quad \beta^{(2)} = 3.3, \n\alpha = 0.1, \quad g^{(1)} = \varepsilon f_s, \quad g^{(2)} = \varepsilon f_s, \nd = 2\pi, \quad \varepsilon = 0.01.
$$

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## Rough, Lipschitz Configuration (2D)



Relative error versus number of gridpoints for the **two–dimensional rough, Lipschitz** configuration:

$$
\beta^{(0)} = 1.1, \quad \beta^{(1)} = 2.2, \quad \beta^{(2)} = 3.3, \n\alpha = 0.1, \quad g^{(1)} = \varepsilon f_r, \quad g^{(2)} = \varepsilon f_L, \nd = 2\pi, \quad \varepsilon = 0.03.
$$

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# Smooth, Rough, Lipschitz, Rough, Smooth Configuration (2D)



Relative error versus number of gridpoints for the **two–dimensional smooth, rough, Lipschitz, rough, smooth** configuration:

<span id="page-41-0"></span>
$$
\beta^{(m)} = 1.1 + m, \quad 0 \le m \le 5,
$$
  
\n
$$
\alpha = 0.1, \quad g^{(1)} = \varepsilon f_s, \quad g^{(2)} = \varepsilon f_r,
$$
  
\n
$$
g^{(3)} = \varepsilon f_L, \quad g^{(4)} = \varepsilon f_r, \quad g^{(5)} = \varepsilon f_s,
$$
  
\n
$$
d = 2\pi, \quad \varepsilon = 0.02.
$$

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## 21 Smooth Layer Configuration (2D)



Relative error versus number of gridpoints for the **two–dimensional, 21 layer structure with smooth interfaces**:

$$
\beta^{(m)} = (m+1)/10, \quad 0 \le m \le 20, \n\alpha = 0.1, \quad g^{(m)} = \varepsilon f_s, \quad 1 \le m \le 20, \n d = 2\pi, \quad \varepsilon = 0.02.
$$

<span id="page-42-0"></span>

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## Smooth, Smooth Configuration (3D)



Relative error versus number of gridpoints for the **three–dimensional smooth–smooth** configuration:

<span id="page-43-0"></span>
$$
\beta^{(0)} = 1.1, \quad \beta^{(1)} = 2.2, \quad \beta^{(2)} = 3.3, \n\alpha_1 = 0.1, \quad \alpha_2 = 0.2, \ng^{(1)} = \varepsilon \tilde{f}_s, \quad g^{(2)} = \varepsilon \tilde{f}_s, \nd_1 = d_2 = 2\pi, \quad \varepsilon = 0.1.
$$

# Rough, Lipschitz Configuration (3D)



Relative error versus number of gridpoints for the **three–dimensional rough–Lipschitz** configuration:

<span id="page-44-0"></span>
$$
\beta^{(0)} = 1.1, \quad \beta^{(1)} = 2.2, \quad \beta^{(2)} = 3.3, \n\alpha_1 = 0.1, \quad \alpha_2 = 0.2, \ng^{(1)} = \varepsilon \tilde{f}_r, \quad g^{(2)} = \varepsilon \tilde{f}_L, \nd_1 = d_2 = 2\pi, \quad \varepsilon = 0.1.
$$

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## A Boundary Perturbation Approach

- This FIE approach is not only flexible and simple to implement, but also highly accurate and robust.
- **•** However, the formation and inversion of the linear operator (matrix) **M** can be quite time–consuming.
- Additionally, this operator must be inverted anew with every change in the structure (e.g., every change in the interface shapes).
- An alternative approach which can eliminate these difficulties while retaining this FIE philosophy is based upon **Boundary Perturbations**.

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## A Boundary Perturbation Method

- We view the boundary deformations as small deviations of flat  $\mathsf{interface:} \ g^{(m)} = \varepsilon f^{(m)}.$
- Posit (verifiable *a posteriori*) that all of the relevant integral operators depend analytically upon the perturbation parameter  $\varepsilon$ :

$$
\{A, R, \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{Q}\} (\varepsilon) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \{A_n, R_n, \mathbf{M}_n, \mathbf{Q}_n\} \varepsilon^n.
$$

 $\bullet$  Insert these expansions into the governing equations  $MV^{(1)} = Q$ .

$$
\left(\sum_{n=0}^\infty \mathbf{M}_n \varepsilon^n \right) \left(\sum_{m=0}^\infty \mathbf{V}^{(1)}{}_{m} \varepsilon^m \right) = \left(\sum_{n=0}^\infty \mathbf{Q}_n \varepsilon^n \right).
$$

• At order zero we solve

<span id="page-46-0"></span>
$$
\boldsymbol{M}_0\boldsymbol{V}^{(l)}{}_0=\boldsymbol{Q}_0\quad\implies\quad\boldsymbol{V}^{(l)}{}_0=\boldsymbol{M}_0^{-1}\boldsymbol{Q}_0,
$$

which solves the flat–interface configurati[on](#page-45-0).

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## A Boundary Perturbation Implementation, cont.

• At orders  $n > 0$  we must solve

$$
\sum_{m=0}^n \mathbf{M}_{n-m} \mathbf{V}^{(1)}{}_{m} = \mathbf{Q}_n
$$

demanding that

$$
{\bf V}^{(1)}{}_{n} = {\bf M}_{0}^{-1}\left[{\bf Q}_{n} - \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} {\bf M}_{n-m} {\bf V}^{(1)}{}_{m}\right],
$$

and we recover higher order corrections by simply inverting  $M_0$ .

• We recall that the  $\{M(\varepsilon), Q(\varepsilon)\}\)$  depend upon the  $\{A(\varepsilon), B(\varepsilon)\}\$  (in a somewhat complicated way) so all we need are forms for the  ${A_n, B_n}.$ 

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#### Boundary Perturbation Formula for *A*

 $\mathsf{Recall}$  the integral relation  $\hat{\bm{A}}_\rho\left[\bm{\mathit{L}}\right]=\hat{\bm{R}}_\rho\left[\bm{\mathit{\xi}}\right],$  where

$$
\hat{A}_{p}[L] = \int_{0}^{d} (i\beta_{p}) e^{i\beta_{p}\ell} e^{-i\alpha_{p}\cdot x} L(x) dx,
$$

and

$$
A[L] = \frac{1}{|d|} \sum_{p=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{A}_p[L] e^{i\alpha_p \tilde{x}}.
$$

 $\bullet$  It is not difficult to show that, if  $\ell = \varepsilon f$ ,

$$
\hat{A}_{n,p}[L] = \int_0^d (i\beta_p)(i\beta_p)^n \left(\frac{f^n}{n!}\right) e^{-i\alpha_p \cdot x} L(x) dx,
$$

so

$$
A_n[L] = \frac{1}{|d|} \sum_{p=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{A}_{n,p}[L] e^{i\alpha_p \tilde{x}}.
$$

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#### Numerical Results, cont.

- We return to our class of numerical simulations from earlier in the talk.
- $\bullet$  However, for each  $0 \le n \le N$  we apply Nyström's Method to the linear system  $M_nV^{(1)}$ <sub>n</sub> =  $Q_n$ .
- Once again we consider exact solutions, and compute maximum (relative) differences between computed and exact Dirichlet and Neumann traces.
- We consider one two–dimensional and one three–dimensional configuration from before.

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# (Small) Smooth, Smooth Configuration (2D)



Relative error versus perturbation order for the **two–dimensional smooth, smooth** configuration:

$$
\beta^{(0)} = 1.1, \quad \beta^{(1)} = 2.2, \quad \beta^{(2)} = 3.3, \n\alpha = 0.1, \quad g^{(1)} = \varepsilon f_s, \quad g^{(2)} = \varepsilon f_s, \nd = 2\pi, \quad \varepsilon = 0.01.
$$

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# (Large) Smooth, Smooth Configuration (2D)



Relative error versus perturbation order for the **two–dimensional smooth, smooth** configuration:

$$
\beta^{(0)} = 1.1, \quad \beta^{(1)} = 2.2, \quad \beta^{(2)} = 3.3, \n\alpha = 0.1, \quad g^{(1)} = \varepsilon f_s, \quad g^{(2)} = \varepsilon f_s, \nd = 2\pi, \quad \varepsilon = 0.25.
$$

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#### Two–Dimensional Conditioning and Timing



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## Smooth, Smooth Configuration (3D)



Relative error versus perturbation order for the **three–dimensional smooth–smooth** configuration:

$$
\beta^{(0)} = 1.1, \quad \beta^{(1)} = 2.2, \quad \beta^{(2)} = 3.3, \n\alpha_1 = 0.1, \quad \alpha_2 = 0.2, \ng^{(1)} = \varepsilon \tilde{f}_s, \quad g^{(2)} = \varepsilon \tilde{f}_s, \nd_1 = d_2 = 2\pi, \quad \varepsilon = 0.1.
$$

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#### Three–Dimensional Conditioning and Timing



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#### Summary

- The ability to robustly simulate scattered fields in periodic, layered media with high accuracy is of fundamental importance.
- Based upon a new surface formulation, we presented a novel Integral Equation Method inspired by recent developments of Fokas and collaborators.
- These formulas do *not* involve the fundamental solution, but rather smooth, "conjugated," solutions of the periodic Helmholtz problem.
- This means simple quadrature rules (e.g., Nyström's Method) may be utilized.
- **•** Further, periodization is unnecessary.
- Importantly, due to a clever **alternative** to the standard Green's Identity, the *derivative* of the interface never appears.
- **•** Further, we extended this method using a Boundary Perturbation Method to provide an accelerated approa[ch](#page-54-0). □ → (母)

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