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School of Mathematics, Meteorology and Physics

Numerical Evaluation of Oscillatory Integrals

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Abstract

The direct wave scattering problem has long been of interest for study in many disciplines such as engineering and geology. High frequency problems present many di culties, since oscillatory behaviour is di cult to evaluate numerically. Numerical methods which can manage high frequencies and have a fast rate of convergence are desirable.

This dissertation reviews one such method, from recent literature, for the numerical solution of problems of wave scattering by convex obstacles. A standard numerical method is also implemented, providing some numerical results to investigate the e ects of high frequencies on such a problem. I confirm that this is my own work and the use of all material from other sources has been properly and fully acknowledged.

Signed: _____ Date:____

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Lastly, thank you to my family, friends and boyfriend for their encouragement and support over the years.

> I wish to dedicate this project to the memory of my Grandad. "To cut a long story short..."

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using a numerical solver such as Gaussian elimination or Gauss-Seidel. Alternatively we can consider the boundary element method. This is the numerical integration over the boundary which has been divided into small boundary segments (or elements). This yields unsymmetric, full matrices [8]. This means at higher frequencies k, where $k = 2 \checkmark$, the number of elements required for a "good" approximation rapidly becomes very large making the method computationally expensive. Although there exist faster implementations of such standard methods, as the size of the domain being considered gets larger relative to a small wavelength , current numerical methods are dependent on , hence many high frequency problems remain unsolved.

Consequently methods capable of evaluating high frequency problems would be greatly advantageous, particularly a method which has a bounded computational complexity as the wavenumber tends to infinity. The production of such methods would enable the solution of arbitrarily large scattering problems.

1.2 Aims and Outline

We study the ideas and numerical method presented by [3] regarding the numerical solution of scattering by convex obstacles. The paper does not directly state the numerical method used but gives the key ideas which will be discussed in the following Chapter 2. As mentioned above, implementing conventional numerical methods leads to the growth in computational complexity as wavelength decreases. The literature paper [3] we study here, applies a method involving a fixed number of degrees of freedom, independent of wavenumber k tending to infinity.

Firstly, we will implement a simple Nyström method for solving a direct scattering problem for which the convex scatterer is a circle. This will provide a preliminary test to investigate the e ect of higher frequencies on the problem. Hence we will produce some justification for the requirement of a method such as that presented

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

in [<mark>3</mark>].

We will then describe the steps to implement the method of [3]. Each of the separate parts towards the full method will then be implemented using MATLAB. A description of the codes used will then be provided along with an indication of how the functions work.

Chapter 2

Literature

In this chapter we elaborate on some of the ideas referred to in Section 1.2, present the details of the problem and provide a review of the literature paper [

which is a solution to the Helmholtz equation, given in equation (1.1). We will consider the case of the Dirichlet boundary condition

$$u(x) = 0$$
 on ,

where is the boundary of the convex obstacle . So we will be considering the *direct* scattering problem, in which we determine $u^s(x)$ from the known $u^i(x)$. The *inverse* scattering problem would be to determine the obstacle function from the known behaviour of the scattered field $u^s(x)$. The fundamental solution of the Helmholtz equation (1.1) denoted here by (x, y) is

$$(x, y) := \frac{\frac{i}{4}H_0^{(1)}(k/x - y/)}{\frac{\exp(ik|x - y|)}{4} \text{ in 3D case,}}$$
(2.1)

for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and x = y, where $H_0^{(1)}$ denotes the Hankel function of the first kind and zero order. This ca

case that (x, y) is singular for x = y.

2.2 Reformulation

We want to reformulate the problem as a boundary-integral equation. Using Green's representation theorem we obtain

$$u(x) = u^{i}(x) + (x, y) - \frac{u(y)}{n} ds(y), x$$

where n(x) is the outward pointing normal. The normal is external to the computational domain, which in this case is outside the scatterer, hence we take the normal direction *into* the scattering obstacle. The scattering problem is then formulated as the boundary integral equation

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{u(x)}{n} = \frac{u^{i}(x)}{n} + i \ u^{i}(x) + \frac{(x, y)}{n(x)} \frac{u(y)}{n} ds(y) + i \ (x, y) \frac{u(y)}{n} ds(y), \quad (2.4)$$

where is a positive arbitrary constant, referred to as the *coupling parameter*, ensuring that equation (2.4) is well-posed, provided = 0. If = 0, we cannot guarantee uniqueness. We can re-write equation (2.4) as

$$\frac{1}{2}\mu(x) = -\frac{u^{i}(x)}{n} + i u^{i}(x) + -\frac{(x, y)}{n(x)}\mu(y)ds(y) + i \qquad (x, y)\mu(y)ds(y)$$
(2.5)

where now we have now denoted our unknown $u(x) \neq n$ by $\mu(x)$ to simplify notation. The paper [3] proposes an ansatz of the form

$$\mu(x) = \mu_{\text{slow}}(x)e^{ikx} , \qquad (2.6)$$

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for a convex obstacle, where the new unknown function $\mu_{slow}(x)$, x, is slowly oscillatory. We can now substitute the ansatz (2.6) into equation (2.5) to obtain

$$\frac{1}{2}\mu_{slow}(x)e^{ikx} = \frac{u^{i}(x)}{n} + i u^{i}(x) + \frac{(x, y)}{n(x)}\mu_{slow}(y)e^{iky} ds(y) + i (y) ds(y)$$

discretization points dependent on the wavenumber k. This will be demonstrated in Chapter 3 by the implementation of a simple Nyström method. The paper [3] extends the method of stationary phase and produces a convergent method which enables the solution of problems involving arbitrary frequencies.

Method of Stationary Phase

We now give a brief explanation of the key idea of stationary phase as used in the numerical method by [3].

The oscillatory integrals we want to evaluate are of the general form

$$\int_{0}^{2} f(x)e^{ik} (x) dx, \qquad (2.11)$$

where f(x) and (x) are not oscillatory. The numerical method in [3] involves high-frequency problems. As k, the rapid oscillations in the exponential term tend to cancel one another out. We can write

$$\int_{0}^{2} f(x)e^{ik} dx = \int_{0}^{2} \frac{f(x)}{ik'(x)} ik'(x)e^{ik'(x)} dx.$$
(2.12)

Now integrating equation (2.12) by parts we obtain

$$\frac{1}{ik} \frac{f(x)}{'(x)} e^{ik} \left(x \right)^{2} = -\frac{1}{ik} \left(x \right)^{2} e^{ik} \left(x \right)^{2} \frac{f(x)}{'(x)} dx.$$
(2.13)

Due to the 2 -periodicity, the first term of equation (2.13) cancels. We repeat the integration by parts procedure n times with the following outcome

$$\int_{0}^{2} f(x)e^{ik} (x) dx = O \frac{1}{k^{n}} , \quad \text{for all } n,$$

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provided '(x) = 0. At the points where '(x) = 0, for which (x) varies most slowly, the cancellation has least e ect [6]. This idea is at the core of the method of stationary phase. We estimate the integral by taking the sum of evaluations over a small neighbourhood around each stationary point.

We can now find the critical points of integrals (2.10). As stated in [3], the kernels oscillate as

$$e^{ik[|x-y|+ \cdot (y-x)]} = e^{ik} , \qquad (2.14)$$

as k, where x and y are the target point and source point on , the boundary of the scattering obstacle. By [4], this arises from

$$H_0^{(1)}(z) = e^{iz} \cdot e^{-iz} H_0^{(1)}(z)$$

where $e^{-iz}H_0^{(1)}(z)$ is not oscillatory. One of the critical points is the target point x, where the kernel is singular. The other critical points are the stationary points, where the derivative of the phase function vanishes. The phase function in this case being $= |x - y| + \cdots (y - x)$. We consider our convex scatterer to be a circle of radius a. The critical points of a phase as above can be found by using a polar parameterization

$$X = X($$

In [3] another function $f_A(x)$ is defined. A lemma using this is then presented which will be used as the key idea behind the numerical method being investigated, where the function $f_A(x)$

Then an error E is considered such that

$$E = \int_{c}^{A} f_{A}(x)e^{ikx^{p}}dx - \int_{0}^{0} f(x)e^{ikx^{p}}dx$$
$$= \int_{c}^{A} g_{A,}(x)e^{ikx^{p}}dx \qquad (2.21)$$

We can then make a substitution for $x^{p} = t$ and integrate by parts *n* times. We know that $g_{A_{r}}(x) = 0$ for x = c and x = A, as well as the derivatives vanishing at each of these points. Hence using a similar argument to that of integration by parts outlined in the previous section, equation (2.13), an upper bound can be found for |E| of order given in (2.20).

2.4 Partition of Unity

Each of the critical points is covered by a region of radius dependent on the wavelength.2(=)I S Q 1 -293.80760.172 -3 1.6BT /F11 17.255 Tf 23.048 60.172 3017.24 where f(x) has critical points C_i , i = 1, 2, ..., n. This integral can then be split in the following way

where $_{i}(x)$ are mollifying functions, defined as $f_{A}(x)$ in equation (2.18). Using Lemma 2.1, this can then be approximated around the critical points of f(x), so integral equation (2.22) is approximately equal to:

$$C_{1} + C_{2} + C_{2$$

The highly oscillatory terms integrated over the interval [0, 2] are neglected since they do not include any stationary points, therefore cancelling out. This uses the same integration by parts argument used above.

Example 2.2. Suppose there exists *one* stationary point at x = c and (x) is a mollifying function as previously described, we have

$$\int_{0}^{2} f(x)e^{ik} (x) dx = \int_{0}^{2} f(x) dx$$

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Then using the 2 -periodicity, we can cancel the second term so

$$\int_{0}^{2} f(x)e^{ik} (x) dx = \int_{c-1}^{c+1} (x)f(x)e^{ik} (x) dx - \frac{1}{ik} \int_{0}^{2} e^{ik} (x)g(x) dx.$$

Integrating by parts is repeated to obtain

$$\int_{0}^{2} f(x)e^{ik} (x) dx = \int_{c-}^{c+} (x)f(x)e^{ik} (x) dx + \frac{1}{(ik)^{n}} \int_{0}^{2} e^{ik} (x)g_{n}(x), \quad (2.24)$$

for all n. \Box

In other words as k the second term on the right hand side of equation (2.24) tends to zero.

The details of implementing the method described here will follow in Chapter 5. A standard Nyström method will first be used to approximate the integrals in equation (2.10). Chapter 3 will discuss the implementation and Chapter 4 will provide the results of using the Nyström method.

Chapter 3

Nyström Method -Implementation

Firstly, we will implement a simple Nyström method to solve the problem above. This will demonstrate the e ects of high wavenumbers k on the e ciency of a standard method such as this one. Throughout we will be considering a circular scatterer of radius a. The Nyström method is a straightforward approximation of an integral by a quadrature formula. The integral equation is replaced by the approximation equation and the solution reduces to a linear system [1].

We begin by describing the process of converting the problem into the polar parameterization form, enabling us to explain the programming steps. We then produce some numerical results using this method which are provided in Chapter 4.

3.1 Parametrization

We want to solve equation (2.10). We will look at the case for which = 0. As mentioned in Section 2.2, this will not guarantee a unique solution. However this does exclude the integral in which (x, y) is part of the kernel, since this is undefined at x = y, whereas $(x, y) \neq n(x)$ is defined at x = y. Hence we assume that we will have a unique solution. Future work could allow for an arbitrary . Now we will solve

$$\frac{1}{2}\mu_{slow}(x) - \frac{(x, y)}{n(x)}e^{ik \cdot (y-x)}\mu_{slow}(y)ds(y) = ikn(x) \cdot .$$
(3.1)

We use the polar parameterization in (2.15) and set $= (d_1, d_2)$, say. Then the normal n(x), as described in Section 2.2, is given by $(-\cos_0, -\sin_0)$ Therefore writing the right hand side of equation (3.1) in terms of this parameterization gives

$$ikn(x) \cdot = -ik(d_1 \cos_0 + d_2 \sin_0).$$
 (3.2)

Next we consider the kernel of the integral given by

$$\frac{(x,y)}{n(x)}e^{ik \cdot (y-x)},$$

where $(x, y) = \frac{i}{4}H_0^{(1)}(k/x - y/)$ in the 2*D* case. We will calculate the normal derivative of this function. First we set $x = (x_1, x_2)$ and y = (

denoting $n(x) = (n_1(x), n_2(x))$. We di erentiate (3.3) with respect to x_1 , using the fact, from [4], that

$$-\frac{1}{Z}H_0^{(1)}(Z) = -H_1^{(1)}(Z),$$

and using the chain rule we obtain

$$\frac{(Z)}{x_1} = \frac{i}{4} \frac{Z}{x_1} - \frac{Z}{Z} H_0^{(1)}(Z),$$

where z = k $\overline{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2}$. We can then find the derivative with respect to x_1 given by

$$\frac{(x,y)}{x_1} = -\frac{ik(x_1-y_1)}{4/x-y/}H_1^{(1)}(k/x-y/).$$

Similarly for the derivative with respect to x_2 . We want to write these in terms of the polar parameterization, beginning with

$$|x - y| = \frac{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2}{a^2(\cos_0 - \cos_0)^2 + a^2(\sin_0 - \sin_0)^2}$$

= $a \frac{1}{2 - 2\cos(1 - 0)}$
= $2a\sin\frac{1 - 0}{2}$. (3.5)

Substituting these details into (3.4) and making use of some trigonometric identities leads to

$$\frac{(x,y)}{n(x)} = \frac{ik}{4}\sin \frac{-0}{2} H_1^{(1)} 2ak\sin \frac{-0}{2} .$$
 (3.6)

Now putting the exponential term of the kernel in polar form we obtain

$$\exp \{ d_1(\cos - \cos 0) + d_2(\sin - \sin 0) \}.$$
 (3.7)

This, together with the previous details calculated means we can express the kernel in the following way:

$$\frac{(x, y)}{n(x)} = \frac{ik}{4} \sin \frac{-0}{2} H_1^{(1)} 2ak \sin \frac{-0}{2} \times$$

$$\exp \{d_1(\cos - \cos 0) + d_2(\sin - \sin 0)\}.$$
(3.8)

Hence we are solving the equation

$$\frac{1}{2}\mu_{\rm slow}(_{0}) - \int_{0}^{2} \tilde{K}(_{0},)\mu_{\rm slow}() d = f(_{0}), \qquad (3.9)$$

where

$$f(_{0}) = -ik(d_{1}\cos_{0} + d_{2}\sin_{0}),$$

and

$$\tilde{K}(_{0},) = \frac{aik}{4}\sin \frac{-_{0}}{2} H_{1}^{(1)} 2ak\sin \frac{-_{0}}{2} .$$

Note the radius of the circle, *a*, appears in the kernel $\tilde{K}(_0,)$ since we are now evaluating the integral over the interval [0, 2].

3.2 Implementation

To implement a basic Nyström method we must evaluate the integral using a quadrature rule. Recall that $\tilde{K}(_0,)$ and $\mu_{slow}($) are 2 periodic. We approximate, for 0 $_0$ 2,

$$\frac{1}{2}\mu_{\rm slow}(0) - h \int_{n=1}^{N} \tilde{K}(0, nh) \mu_{\rm slow}(nh) = f(0),$$

applying the trapezoidal rule, where h = 2 /N. We want to find values for $\mu_{slow}(jh)$, for j = 1, 2, ..., N. Currently we have one equation with N unknowns. Hence we set equation (3.10) to hold at each of the points $_0 = h, 2h, ..., Nh$ and we get a matrix-vector formulation

f(Nh)

We define approximations to $\mu_{slow}(jh)$ as μ_j , for j = 1, ..., N and simplifying (3.10) we obtain the linear system

We can implement this in MATLAB, by creating functions for each of $\tilde{K}(_0,)$ and the right hand side of equation (3.11), $f(_0,)$, using the details calculated in Section 3.1.

Problem

The Hankel function, $H_1^{(1)}(z)$, of the first order is singular at z = 0 thus MATLAB will return an error. This means we must look at the series expansion of this Hankel function to input an approximation for the instances where z = 0 occurs. Recall

$$H_1^{(1)}(z) = J_1(z) + iY_1(z)$$
(3.12)

from equation (2.2) in Section 2.1. From [4], we know each of the Bessel functions can be expressed as a series. The Bessel function of the first kind can be expressed in the following way

$$J_{1}(Z) = \frac{Z}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{-\frac{Z}{4}^{k}}{k (2+k)}$$

Expanding this for a few terms gives

$$J_1(z) = \frac{z}{2}(1 + c_1 z^2 + c_2 z^4 + O(z^6)),$$

where c_n are constants. Moreover, the Bessel function of the second kind can be expressed as

$$Y_1(z) = -\frac{2}{z} + \frac{2}{z} \ln \frac{z}{2} J_1(z) + O(z)$$

and

$$ZY_1(z) = -\frac{2}{z} + \frac{2z}{z} \ln \frac{z}{2} J_1(z) + O(z^2).$$

We know that $zJ_1(z) = O(z)$ hence

$$zY_1(z) = -\frac{2}{z} + \frac{2z^2}{z} \ln \frac{z}{2} J_1(z) + (z^2)$$

Now consider taking limits of $zJ_1(z)$ and $zY_1(z)$ as z = 0 and substituting this into equation (3.12) to find that

$$zH_1(z) = -\frac{2i}{2}, \quad \text{as } z = 0$$

Therefore, using equation (3.8), we approximate the normal derivative of ($_0$,) by -1/4 , at the points where $_0$ = $\ .$

Once this has been accounted for in the coding we can look at some results for di erent wavenumbers k and investigate the e ects on the approximation as k increases. This is demonstrated in the following Chapter 4.

Chapter 4

Nyström Method - Results

4.1 Results

In this chapter we present the results obtained using the Nyström method to solve the boundary integral equation (3.1) and calculate errors. We include plots displaying the results alongside observations and finally a brief summary of what has been found using this method.

First recall the notation $= (d_1, d_2)$ from Chapter 3, where gives the direction of the incident wave, $u^i(x)$. Throughout the implementation we have assumed, without loss of generality, = (1, 0) and we have taken the radius of the scatterer to be 1. Also note on the following plots the *x*-axis is labelled 't' which denotes the discretization points, such that t = 2 /N, where N is the number of nodes. The *y*-axis, denoted ' μ ', is the approximate solution the MATLAB program produces, we are plotting the absolute value. We investigate the e ect of the size of the wavenumber *k* by plotting approximate solutions to the integral equation for various numbers of nodes, N.



Figure 4.1: plot displaying approximate solution against discretization points for k = 1

We see in Figure 4.1 that for N = 32 and above, the solution, loosely speaking, appears to converge to the true solution. In comparison, Figures 4.2 and 4.3, for k = 5 and k = 10 respectively show that the number of nodes required before we notice this "convergence" is much greater.



Figure 4.2: plot displaying approximate solution against discretization points for k = 5



Figure 4.3: plot displaying approximate solution against discretization points for k = 10

Now looking at k = 50 and k = 100, shown in Figure 4.4 and Figure 4.5 respectively, we see that for smaller numbers of nodes, N, the results are spurious and highly oscillatory.



Figure 4.4: plot displaying approximate solution against discretization points for k = 50



Figure 4.5: plot displaying approximate solution against discretization points for k = 100

From Figure 4.7 we find that as k increases the peaks become narrower. Also, the solutions are approaching zero around the shadow boundaries. In other words the points $_0$ such that $\cdot n(_0) = 0$. Recall $n(_0) = (-\cos_0, -\sin_0)$ and we have taken = (1,0). Therefore we want the points $0 \ _0 \ _2$ such that $\cos(_0) = 0$. Thus the shadow boundaries are at /2 and $3 \ /2$. The fact that the approximation to the solution is tending to zero around these points is expected since as k

$$\frac{u}{n} = 2\frac{u'}{n}$$

on the illuminated boundary and

$$\frac{u}{n} = 0 \tag{4.1}$$

on the shadow boundary, as discussed in [3] and depicted in Figure 4.6.



Figure 4.6: Figure depicting the shadow boundaries



Figure 4.7: plot displaying approximate solution against discretization points, for N = 4096 and various k

4.2 Errors

We can further interpret the results by investigating the errors. We calculate the error using the L^2 -norm

$$U - U_{n_2} = \int_{0}^{2} |U - U_n|^2, \qquad (4.2)$$

where u is the exact solution and u_n is the approximation. We approximate this integral using the trapezium rule

$$u - u_{n_2}$$
 h $|u - u_n|^2$

However, we do not have the exact solution and hence use the values obtained for the largest value of nodes we previously calculated, N = 2048. This means a direct comparison of this solution to that of a smaller number of nodes would not be possible. For example, comparing with N = 4, would only be possible at 4 points, which would not give us a good estimate for the error between them. Therefore we interpolate for a number of points in between. We could interpolate linearly but we can use a more suitable method for the problem.

In this case we will use a trigonometric interpolating polynomial. In other words, the function going through each of our data points has to be a trigonometric polynomial; a sum of sines and cosines, the general form being

$$p(t) = \int_{j=1}^{N/2} a_j \cos(j t) + b_j \sin(j t),$$

where a_j , b_j are constants. The MATLAB code used gives us u_h , u_{2h} , ..., u_{Nh} , which are approximations to $\mu_{slow}(jh)$ as defined in Section 3.2. To use the trigonometric interpolating polynomial we must have N = 2m, even. We have the equally spaced points $t_j = j /N$, j = 1, ..., N. Referring to [7], the operator P_N is then

CHAPTER 4. NYSTR

Error						
N	k=1	k=10	k=100			
2	2.3488e+000	2.3222e-001	2.2745e+002			
4	3.4438e-001	2.5340e+001	2.3960e+002			
8	1.0066e-002	1.8052e+001	2.3644e+002			
16	1.0954e-003	2.2949e+001	2.5565e+002			
32	1.3354e-004	6.6524e-001	2.6929e+002			
64	1.6592e-005	7.2622e-002	6.0345e+002			
128	2.0707e-006	8.8045e-003	2.1252e+002			
256	2.5827e-007	1.0906e-003	1.2635e+000			
512	3.1838e-008	1.3421e-004	9.5934e-002			
1024	3.5375e-008	1.4906e-005	9.8394e-003			

Table 4.1: Table of errors k = 1, 10, 100



Figure 4.8: plot displaying errors against number of nodes, N, for k = 1, 10, 100 on a logarithmic scale

Consider the values in the error Table 4.2

nodes *N* needed for the approximation to closely resemble the true solution. Figure 4.9 displays the data in Table 4.2 for k = 10. It is clear from this that at around N = 22, the error becomes significantly smaller than that of the approximation for N = 18 or N = 20.

Ν	error k=10	N	error k=10
2	2.3222e+001	22	3.8555e+000
4	2.5340e+001	24	2.2437e+000
6	2.3265e+001	26	1.4164e+000
8	1.8052e+001	28	1.0689e+000
10	1.6944e+001	30	8.3290e-001
12	1.8722e+001	32	606524e-001
14	2.6061e+001	34	5.4192e-001
16	2.2949e+001	36	4.4856e-001
18	5.4806e+001	38	3.7591e-001
20	1.1268e+001	40	3.1831e-001

Table 4.2: Table of errors, k = 10



ż

5

Figure 4.9: plot displaying errors against number of nodes, N, for k=10

We now consider Figure 4.5. It is di cult for the naked eye to distinguish between approximations beyond N = 256. However, it is clear the approximation for N = 128 is highly oscillatory. Hence we will look at errors for numbers of nodes between these two approximations, determining for which number of nodes the error in the approximation becomes 'small'. Observe Table 4.3 and Figure 4.10 displaying this data. We see that for N = 208 the error decrease a lot from that for N = 176 or N = 192.

Table 4.3: Table of errors, k = 100

N	error k=100			
128	2.1252e+002			
144	1.3420e+002			
160	1.2260e+002			
176	2.3096e+002			
192	6.4333e+001			
208	8.7420e+000			
224	2.9045e+000			
240	1.7988e+000			
256	1.2635e+000			



Figure 4.10: plot displaying errors against number of nodes, N, for k=100

Relative errors

We see from Figures

N	k=1	k=10	k=100
2	6.061e-001	8.8332e-001	9.0288e-001
4	9.6857e-002	9.6385e-001	9.5111e-001
8	2.8312e-003	6.8665e-001	9.3858e-001
16	3.0808e-004	8.7293e-001	1.0148e+000
32	3.7558e-005	2.5304e-002	1.0690+000
64	4.6665e-006	2.7624e-003	2.3955+000
128	5.8231e-007	3.3490e-004	8.4362e-001
256	7.2637e-008	4.1484e-005	5.0155e-003
512	8.9544e-009	5.1051e-006	3.8082e-004
1024	9.9491e-010	5.6698e-007	3.9059e-005

Table 4.4: Table of relative errors, k=1,10,100



4.3 Summary

As we had expected from the literature the number of discretization points needed depends on the size of the wavenumber k. As k increases, the number of nodes, N, needed for a "good" approximation increases proportional to this. For large k, the number of nodes N needed greatly increases and the scheme fails since the computer lacks the required amount of storage. The computational times also greatly increase.

We also found that the scheme behaved as expected at the shadow boundaries. As k increases we suppose the scheme would produce a sharper shape, as described in Section

Chapter 5

Improved Method

5.1 Implementation

In this chapter we will call upon the theory and ideas discussed in the literature paper [3], as reviewed in Chapter 2. We will use this to describe the steps towards implementing the method presented in [3].

Recall the integral equation (3.1) we want to solve

$$\frac{1}{2}\mu_{slow}(x) - \frac{(x, y)}{n(x)}e^{ik \cdot (y-x)}\mu_{slow}(y)ds(y) = ikn(x) \cdot .$$
 (5.1)

In Chapter 3 we presented the standard Nyström method to solve this integral equation along with results of the implementation of this in Chapter 4. Here we parameterized the integral equation to get equation (3.9) and then simply replaced the integral

$${\tilde{\kappa}}_{0}^{2}$$
 ${ ilde{\kappa}}({}_{0},{})\mu_{
m slow}({}){
m d}$,

where $\tilde{\mathcal{K}}(~_{0},~)$ is as defined in Chapter 3, by the sum

$$h \sum_{j=1}^{N} \tilde{K}(0, jh) \mu_{slow}(jh),$$

where h = 2 /N. We then set the equation to hold for all = nh, for n = 1, ..., N. More precisely

$$\mu_{slow}(mh) + h \int_{j=1}^{N} \tilde{K}(mh, jh) \mu_{slow}(jh) = f(mh),$$

for m = 1, ..., N, where the function f(mh) is as defined in Chapter 3, equation (3.9). This gave us a linear system for unknown μ_m defined as an approximation to $\mu_{slow}(mh)$.

However we know this method has di culty apprximation the integrant high 1931

where we have denoted $= |x - y| + \cdot y$. We have written the equation (5.2) in this manner to follow [3], in order to use the formula given by Appendix A of [3] for the critical points of the phase . This formula will be written in the explicit form shortly.

Recall = (d_1, d_2) so we can put the function into a polar form to get the following:

$$= 2a\sin \frac{-0}{2} + a(d_1\cos 0 + d_2\sin 0).$$
 (5.3)

We assume = (1,0) as used in the MATLAB implementation of the Nyström method, therefore

= 2*a* sin

recalling from Chapter 4 that $P_n\mu_{slow}($) denotes the trigonometric interpolating polynomial such that

$$P_{n}\mu_{\rm slow}(\) = \prod_{j=1}^{N} \mu_{\rm slow}(jh) I_{j}^{N}(\)$$
(5.7)

and $I_j^N()$ is defined in the same way as equation (4.4). This enables us to only evaluate $\mu_{slow}(jh)$, for j = 1, ..., N whereas $P_n \mu_{slow}()$ can be evaluated for any

. Therefore this is an approximation to the integral in equation (5.4) or more precisely

$$\hat{K}(_{0},)\mu_{slow}()d = \hat{K}(_{0},)[P_{n}\mu_{slow}()]d$$

We refer to the functiot92(t)1(ov1323Tf11.0597V11.0593:)-167(:)-167(;)-166(N)]TF1511hl67(:)11.x11

where is the wavelength, = 2 / k, for some constant . Substituting into the integral (5.6) gives an approximation

$$N_{s} = 2$$

 $q(0,)\hat{K}(0,)[P_{n}\mu_{slow}()]d$.
 $q=1 = 0$

Then using Lemma 2.1 we can localize the integration around the critical points as follows: $N_{c} = C$

$$k_{g=1}^{N_{s}} = C^{-} q(0,)\hat{K}(0,)[P_{n}\mu_{slow}()]d$$

where C is a critical point and 2 is the small region around the critical point.

These integrals can then be approximated using the trapezoidal rule:

$$\hat{h}_{q(0,z\hat{h})\hat{K}(0,z\hat{h})}^{N_s N_t} P_n \mu_{\text{slow}}(z\hat{h}) ,$$

$$q=1 \quad z=1$$

where N_t is the number of discretization points used for the trapezoidal rule and $\hat{h} = 2 / N_t$. Then substituting for $P_n \mu \text{slow}(z\hat{h})$ using equation (5.7) we obtain the full equation

$$\hat{K}(_{0},)\mu_{\text{slow}}() d \qquad \begin{array}{c} N_{s} & N_{t} \\ \hat{h} & _{q}(_{0}, z\hat{h})\hat{K}(_{0}, z\hat{h}) \\ q=1 & z=1 \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} N & _{j=1} \\ j=1 \end{array} \mu_{\text{slow}}(jh)I_{j}^{N}(z\hat{h}) \ .$$

After some rearranging, the right hand side can be written as a general form

$$\sum_{\substack{j=1}}^{N} G_j(0) \mu_{\text{slow}}(jh),$$

where

$$G_{j}(_{0}) = \bigwedge_{q=1}^{N_{s}} \bigwedge_{z=1}^{N_{t}} {}_{q(_{0}, z\hat{h})} \hat{K}(_{0}, z\hat{h}) I_{j}^{N}(z\hat{h})$$

and recalling that h = 2 /N.

Using equation (5.4), the whole scheme becomes

$$\frac{1}{2}\mu_{\rm slow}(0) - \prod_{j=1}^{N} G_j(0)\mu_{\rm slow}(jh) = f(0)$$

and we set this to hold at = mh, as we did for the standard method in Section 3.2. Thus producing to the linear system:

where $\mu_h, \mu_{2h}, \ldots, \mu_{Nh}$ are defined as approximations to μ_{slow} .

5.2 Preliminary Tests of Functions

Here we will present how the functions for various components of the implementation work. The MATLAB code for each function is provided in the Appendices.

We begin with the mollifying function

$$f(x) = S(x, x_0, x_1) \cdot (1 - S(x, -x_1, -x_0)),$$

as defined in Chapter 2, Section 2.3. This function envelopes the critical points, localizing the integration. Hence enabling us to integrate over a smaller region.



Figure 5.2: Demonstrating the trigonometric interpolating polynomial with N=4, k=1



Figure 5.3: Demonstrating the trigonometric interpolating polynomial with N=16, k=10

The codes for the functions $\hat{K}(_0,)$, given in equation (5.5) and ($_0,)$, given in equation (5.3), are also provided in Appendix B.4 and B.3 respectively.

Chapter 6

Summary, Conclusions and Future Work

In this chapter we summarize the work carried out in this dissertation. We indicate the main results and discuss areas for further work on the topic.

6.1 Summary

The main aims of this project were to investigate the motivation behind the method presented by [3], produce some results for a standard numerical method to solve the direct scattering problem and describe the steps to implement the method of [3].

We introduced this dissertation by describing some motivation for studying the problems of numerical evaluation of oscillatory integrals. Chapter 2 provides a literature review which describes the theory and ideas behind the numerical method developed in [3]. We then implemented a standard Nyström method in Chapter 3 and produced results which are presented in Chapter 4. The details for the im-

plementation of the method from the literature were then discussed in Chapter 5. This also contained a brief outline and preliminary testing of functions which can be used for the implementation of the numerical method in [3].

6.2 Conclusions

The results of using the standard Nyström method, in Chapter 4, agreed with the literature. We found that the number of nodes needed for a "good" approximation increased proportional to wavenumber k. We observed in Section 4.3 that we require at least two degrees of freedom per wavelength before we get an approximate solution resembling the true solution to the naked eye. It is clear, from the errors calculated in Chapter 4, that more degrees of freedom per wavelength would be needed to get an accurate solution.

As *k* increases and more nodes are needed, the computational complexity is much greater and the program failed to provide "good" approximations for *k* much higher than 2000, due to the number of nodes needed being too great and a shortage of computer memory.

The literature paper [3] had not given the method which it was presenting explicitly and left details of the theory and method of implementing this to be determined by the reader. We have covered areas of the theory in further detail. In addition to this, Chapter 5 provides a firm foundation for further study as it closes the gaps in the details of the implementation omitted by [3].

6.3 Future Work

There is some scope for further work on the Nyström method implemented. Ideally we would want to run the program for larger values of N and k. This was di cult because of the nature of the method as well as the time and computational constraints. Where there was some investigation into the number of nodes for which the approximation becomes within a certain error tolerance, for k = 10and k

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Appendix A

Matlab codes - Errors

A.1 l.m

The following code produces the function $I_j^N($) as defined in Chapter 4, equation (4.4). We have denoted N as an even number of nodes.

function L = I(y, u, m)

%Lagrange interpolating functions to be used to calculate pn %N=2m

 $L=(1/(2^{*}m))^{*}(1+\cos(m^{*}(u-y)));$

```
for n=1:m-1
    L = L + (1/m)*cos(n*(u-y));
end;
```

A.2 Pn.m

This code produces the trigonometric polynomial function using the code for $I_j^N()$ as above. The number of points of interpolation has been selected at 5000 but this can be amended to any number of points. The codes for calculating the approximate solution are omitted.

```
%code for trigonometric interpolating polynomial function pn
function Pn = pn(N,k)
```

```
a=1; %radius of circle
d1=1; %incident direction
d2=0;
```

```
h=2*pi /N; %steplength
m=N/2;
x = mat_A(N, a, k, d1, d2)\rhs_vec(N, k, d1, d2); %our approx solution
Pn = zeros(5000, 1);
u = (1:5000)*((2*pi)/5000);
for j=1:5000
    for q=1:N
        Pn(j) = Pn(j) + x(q)*I(q*h, u(j), m);
    end;
end;
```

%for each entry chosen we produce u and then replace selected %entries in s with the exponential function calculated using u.

B.2 fA.m

function func = fA(x, x0, x1)

%to get the function $f(x)=S(x, x0, x1)^*(1-S(x, -x1, -x0))$ as written in %literature paper Bruno et al.

func = S(x, x0, x1). *(1-S(x, -x1, -x0));

B.3 psi.m

function p = psi (theta0, theta, a, d1, d2)

```
%This function is for the total phase.
%psi =abs(x-y)+alpha.y
%alpha=(1,0);
%input:
%theta0 0<theta0<2pi
%theta 0<theta<2pi
%a radius of the circle
%d1,d2 alpha=(d1,d2), take alpha=(1,0)
```

$B.4 \quad K_{-}new.m$

A function for $\hat{K}(_{0},)$ in equation (5.5).

function g = K_new(theta0, theta, a, k)

%K=a*exp(i*k*(psi-acos(theta0)))

 $g = a^{exp}(i^{k*psi}(theta0, theta, a, d1, d2))^{exp}(-i^{k*a*cos}(theta0));$