# DIRECTIONAL PRECONDITIONER FOR HIGH FREQUENCY OBSTACLE SCATTERING 

LEXING YING


#### Abstract

The boundary integral method is an efficient approach for solving time-harmonic obstacle scattering problems by a bounded scatterer. This paper presents the directional preconditioner for the iterative solution of linear systems of the boundary integral method. This new preconditioner builds a data-sparse approximation of the integral operator, transforms it into a sparse linear system, and computes an approximate inverse with efficient sparse and hierarchical linear algebra algorithms. This preconditioner is efficient and results in small and almost frequency-independent iteration counts when combined with standard iterative solvers. Numerical results are provided to demonstrate the effectiveness of the new preconditioner.


## 1. Introduction

This paper is concerned with solving the time-harmonic acoustic obstacle scattering problems in two dimensions. Let $\Omega \subset \mathrm{R}^{2}$ be a bounded scatterer with smooth boundary $\partial \Omega, \omega$ be the frequency, and $e^{i \omega t} u_{I}(x)$ be the timeharmonic incident wave. In the sound-soft scattering problem, the scattered field $u(x)$ satisfies the Helmholtz equation with the Dirichlet boundary condition

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta u(x)+\omega^{2} u(x) & =0, & & x \in \mathrm{R}^{2} \backslash \Omega, \\
u(x) & =-u_{I}(x), & & x \in \partial \Omega .
\end{aligned}
$$

In the sound-hard scattering problem, the scattered field $u(x)$ satisfies the Helmholtz equation with the Neumann boundary condition

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta u(x)+\omega^{2} u(x) & =0, & & x \in \mathrm{R}^{2} \backslash \Omega \\
\frac{\partial u(x)}{\partial n(x)} & =-\frac{\partial u_{I}(x)}{\partial n(x)}, & & x \in \partial \Omega
\end{aligned}
$$

[^0]In both cases, $u(x)$ satisfies the Sommerfeld radiation condition

$$
\lim _{r \rightarrow \infty} r^{1 / 2}\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial r}-i \omega u\right)=0
$$

An effective way to solve these problems is the boundary integral method and, more specifically, the combined field integral equation (CFIE) [11, 25 formulation. This method relies on the free space Green's function

$$
G(x, y)=\frac{i}{4} H_{0}^{1}(\omega|x-y|)
$$

of the Helmholtz equation. For the sound-soft scattering, we look for a surface density $q(x), x \in \partial \Omega$ such that for each $x \in \partial \Omega$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{2} q(x)+\int_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\partial G(x, y)}{\partial n(y)} q(y) d y-i \eta \int_{\partial \Omega} G(x, y) q(y) d y=-u_{I}(x) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Once $q(x)$ is computed, the scattered field $u(x)$ can be evaluated through a boundary integral over $\partial \Omega$. For the sound-hard scattering, we look for $q(x), x \in \partial \Omega$ such that for each $x \in \partial \Omega$,
(2) $\frac{1}{2} q(x)-\int_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\partial G(x, y)}{\partial n(x)} q(y) d y+\frac{1}{i \eta} \oint_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\partial^{2} G(x, y)}{\partial n(x) \partial n(y)} q(y) d y=-\frac{\partial u_{I}(x)}{\partial n(x)}$.
with $\oint$ being the principal value integral. In both cases, $\eta$ is typically chosen to be of order $O(\omega)$ (see [21] for example) and we refer to [11, 25] for derivations and discussions of these integral equations.

By introducing the following operators

$$
\begin{aligned}
(S q)(x) & =\int_{\partial \Omega} G(x, y) q(y) d y \\
(D q)(x) & =\int_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\partial G(x, y)}{\partial n(y)} q(y) d y \\
\left(D^{\prime} q\right)(x) & =\int_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\partial G(x, y)}{\partial n(x)} q(y) d y \\
(N q)(x) & =\oint_{\partial \Omega} \frac{\partial^{2} G(x, y)}{\partial n(x) \partial n(y)} q(y) d y
\end{aligned}
$$

we can write (1) and (2) into operator forms:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(\frac{1}{2} I+D-i \eta S\right) q=-u_{I},  \tag{3}\\
& \left(\frac{1}{2} I+D^{\prime}-\frac{1}{i \eta} N\right) q=-\frac{\partial u_{I}}{\partial n} . \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

Standard approaches for discretizing these boundary integral equations include the Nyström method, the Galerkin method, and the collocation method [11,22]. To simplify the presentation, we assume that the Nyström method is used. For the other approaches, the discussion remains similar as long as the basis functions employed are local. A typical discretization of these integral equations requires at least a couple of quadrature points
per wavelength. Assuming that both the diameter and the boundary length of $\Omega$ are $\Theta(1)$, this implies that the boundary is discretized with a set $P$ of $n=O(\omega)$ points. For the resulting linear systems, we shall continue to use $S, D, D^{\prime}$, and $N$ to denote the discrete matrices associated with these operators. Similarly, $q, u_{I}$, and $\partial u_{I} / \partial n$ are reused to denote the discrete version of $q(x), u_{I}(x)$, and $\partial u_{I}(x) / \partial n(x)$ sampled at the quadrature points. Therefore, with this slight abuse of notation, the discrete linear systems take the same form as (3) and (4).

There has been a lot of work devoted to the fast solution of these linear systems. Since the system is dense, the standard direct solvers such as LU factorization take $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ steps, which is prohibitively expensive. Recently, several linear-complexity approaches based on recursive interpolative decomposition have been proposed by $12,19,23$ for boundary integral equations with non-oscillatory kernels. However, for high frequency scattering where the kernel is oscillatory (i.e, $\omega=\Theta(n)$ ), the complexity of these approaches is still cubic in $n$. The only exception is for quasi-1D domains 24 where the boundary integral equation essentially reduces to the 1D case and the complexity scales linearly in $\omega$.

For this reason, iterative methods such as GMRES and TFQMR 17,26 , 27 are the main approaches for solving these problems. In these cases, though the CIFEs have much better conditioning properties compared to other integral formulations, the number of iterations can grow quickly with $\omega$. Therefore, for high frequency scattering problems, there is a clear need for improving the conditioning properties of these operators.

Over the past twenty years, there has been a significant amount of research devoted to this task. A couple of algorithms suggest improving the conditioning property via modifying the standard CFIE formulation. For example, one line of work is to replace the $i \eta$ term in (3) with better approximations of the Dirichlet-to-Neumann (DtN) operator and the $1 /(i \eta)$ term in (4) with better approximations of the Neumann-to-Dirichlet (NtD) operator $[1,3,4,8$. Typically, these new approximations are derived from leading order terms of the pseudo-differential symbols of the DtN and NtD operators.

A second approach is to precondition the integral equation. Most work here considers the electric field integral equation for electromagnetic scattering and follows the famous Calderon relationship [2, 10, 28]. The resulting integral equations are of Fredholm second kind with good conditioning properties. However, the number of matrix vector multiplications per iteration is doubled.

There has also been a lot of work on sparsifying the integral operators using special basis functions, such as local cosine bases [5, 7] and optimized wavelet packets $15,16,18,20$. The resulting sparse representations typically have $O\left(n^{4 / 3}\right)$ non-zero entries. Recently in 14 , an approach using the wave atom transform [13] results a sparse representation with $O(n \log n)$ non-zero entries. In [9], Canning claimed to obtain a sparse approximation with $O(n)$
non-zero entries via locally mollified exponential functions. However, when good accuracy is required, most of these methods access all entries of the integral operator, thus requiring an $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ precomputation cost to assemble the whole matrix.

In this paper, we propose a new method for preconditioning the CFIEs by incorporating the ideas from sparse representation. This approach builds a data-sparse representation of the boundary integral operator, transforms it into a sparse linear system, and computes an approximate inverse with efficient sparse and hierarchical linear algebra algorithms. This preconditioner is highly efficient to construct and to apply. It results in small and almost frequency-independent iteration counts when combined with standard iterative solvers. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the algorithm and Section 3 presents the results. Future work and open questions are discussed in Section 4.

## 2. Algorithm

For frequency $\omega$, the wavelength $\lambda$ is $2 \pi / \omega$. We assume that the scatterer boundary $\partial \Omega$ is $C^{2}$ and both the diameter and the boundary length of $\Omega$ is $\Theta(1)$. To simplify the discussion, we suppose that the length $L$ of $\partial \Omega$ is equal to $4^{q} \lambda$ where $q$ is a positive integer. The actual number $4^{q}$ is not essential but it makes the presentation simpler. Combining this with $L=\Theta(1)$ implies that $\omega=O\left(4^{q}\right)$.

Suppose that $\rho: \partial \Omega \rightarrow[0, L]$ is the arclength parametrization of the boundary and that the boundary is sampled with $n=4^{q} p$ discretization points for some $p=\Theta(1)$, i.e., $p$ points per wavelength $\lambda$.
2.1. Data-sparse approximation. We start by decomposing the boundary into sufficiently planar segments. Initially, the boundary is partitioned into $2^{q}$ segments, each of length $2^{q} \lambda$ and with $2^{q} p$ points. Each such segment is further partitioned hierarchically until one of two situations happen:

- First, it is stopped if the length of the segment is bounded by $2^{q} \lambda / \sqrt{c}$ where $c$ is the maximum absolute value of the curvature in the current segment. Such a segment is called almost-planar.
- Second, it is stopped when the length of the segment is bounded by $m_{\ell} \lambda$. Typically $m_{\ell}=2$ or 4 . Such a segment is called a non-planar leaf.

We denote the final set of segments by $\mathcal{G}=\left\{P_{1}, \ldots, P_{m}\right\}$, where the segments $P_{i}$ are ordered according to their positions on the boundary. Notice that since the boundary is assumed to be $C^{2}$, all segments in $\mathcal{G}$ are almost-planar for sufficiently large $\omega$. Therefore, in the following discussion, it is safe to regard all segments $P_{i}$ as almost-planar.

The discussion here shall treat the sound-soft case (3) and the soundhard case (4) in the same way, since the kernels of these two have the same
oscillatory pattern. Therefore, it is convenient to use the general form

$$
\begin{equation*}
M q=f \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for both of them in the discussion. Based on how the segments are generated, each $P_{j}$ is of length $2^{\ell_{j}} \lambda$ for some integer $\ell_{j}$ and contains $2^{\ell_{j}} p$ equally-spaced discretization points. After ordering the unknowns according to the ordering of $P_{j}$, the matrix $M$ can be written as the following block form

$$
M=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
M_{11} & \ldots & M_{1 m} \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
M_{m 1} & \ldots & M_{m m}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $M_{i j}$ is of size $2^{\ell_{i}} p \times 2^{\ell_{j}} p$. The next step is find a data-sparse approximation for the blocks $M_{i j}$.
2.1.1. Diagonal blocks. Let us first consider a diagonal block $M_{j j}$, which represents the interaction between $P_{j}$ and itself. Since $P_{j}$ is almost planar, we can treat it approximately as flat. Therefore, we have

$$
M_{j j} \approx B_{j},
$$

where $B_{j}$ is obtained by restricting the integral operator to a straight segment of length $2^{\ell_{j}} \lambda$ with $2^{\ell_{j}} p$ equally spaced quadrature points. Noticing that $B_{j}$ only depends on $\ell_{j}$ and that there are only a few choices for $\ell_{j}$, we can clearly precompute these matrices. Going through all $P_{i}$ gives the following approximation $B$ to the block-diagonal part of $M$,

$$
B=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
B_{1} & & \\
& \ddots & \\
& & B_{m}
\end{array}\right]
$$

2.1.2. Off-diagonal blocks. Next we consider the off-diagonal blocks, i.e, $M_{i j}$ with $i \neq j$. We define

- $c_{i}$ and $c_{j}$ to be the centers of segments $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$,
- $t_{i}$ and $t_{j}$ to be the tangent directions of $\partial \Omega$ at the centers of $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$, and
- $a_{i j}$ to be the unit direction from $c_{j}$ to $c_{i}$, i.e., $\left(c_{i}-c_{j}\right) /\left|c_{i}-c_{j}\right|$ (see Figure 1 for an illustration).


Figure 1. The geometric setup of two segments $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$.

The main difficulty of working with high frequency Helmholtz kernel $G(x, y)$ is its highly oscillatory behavior. Since the oscillation of $G(x, y)$ and its derivatives come from the term $\exp (i \omega|x-y|)$, it is instructive to focus on $\exp (i \omega|x-y|)$ for a moment. In the following discussion, the sign $\sim$ is used to denote an approximation up to a non-oscillatory multiplicative term.

A first observation is that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\exp (i \omega|x-y|) \sim \exp \left(i \omega a_{i j} \cdot(x-y)\right) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

To see this, assume without loss of generality that $a_{i j}=(1,0)^{t}$ by rotating the coordinates accordingly and placing the origin on $\partial \Omega$ between $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$. In the new coordinate system, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\exp (i \omega|x-y|) & =\exp \left(i \omega\left(x_{1}-y_{1}\right)\right) \exp \left(i \omega\left(|x-y|-\left(x_{1}-y_{1}\right)\right)\right) \\
& =\exp \left(i \omega\left(x_{1}-y_{1}\right)\right) \exp \left(i \omega\left(x_{1}-y_{1}\right)\left(\sqrt{1+\frac{\left|x_{2}-y_{2}\right|^{2}}{\left|x_{1}-y_{1}\right|^{2}}}-1\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)^{t}$ and $y=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}\right)^{t}$. Up to a constant factor, the phase of the last term can be estimated with $\omega \frac{\left|x_{2}-y_{2}\right|^{2}}{\left|x_{1}-y_{1}\right|}$.

- When the segments $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$ are $\Theta(1)$ distance from each other, we estimate this by

$$
\omega \frac{\left|x_{2}-y_{2}\right|^{2}}{\left|x_{1}-y_{1}\right|} \lesssim \omega\left(2^{q} \lambda\right)^{2}=\Theta(1)
$$

- When $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$ are close to each other, we use quadratic approximation in the rotated frame $\left|x_{2}\right| \lesssim\left|x_{1}\right|^{2}$ and $\left|y_{2}\right| \lesssim\left|y_{1}\right|^{2}$ and the fact that $x_{1}$ and $y_{1}$ has different signs to conclude

$$
\omega \frac{\left|x_{2}-y_{2}\right|^{2}}{\left|x_{1}-y_{1}\right|} \lesssim \omega\left|x_{1}-y_{1}\right|^{3} \lesssim \omega\left(2^{q} \lambda\right)^{3}=o(1)
$$

In both cases, $\omega \frac{\left|x_{2}-y_{2}\right|^{2}}{\left|x_{1}-y_{1}\right|}$ is bounded and hence (6) is valid up to a nonoscillatory multiplicative term. Next, we rewrite

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad \exp (i \omega|x-y|) \sim \exp \left(i \omega a_{i j} \cdot(x-y)\right) \\
& \quad=\exp \left(i \omega a_{i j} \cdot\left(\left(x-c_{i}\right)+\left(c_{i}-c_{j}\right)+\left(c_{j}-y\right)\right)\right) \\
& (7) \quad=\exp \left(i \omega a_{i j} \cdot\left(x-c_{i}\right)\right) \cdot \exp \left(i \omega a_{i j} \cdot\left(c_{i}-c_{j}\right)\right) \cdot \exp \left(-i \omega a_{i j} \cdot\left(y-c_{j}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

To approximate the first term in (7), we perform a Taylor expansion for $\rho^{-1}(t)$ near $t=\rho\left(c_{i}\right)$ and evaluate it at $\rho(x)$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|\rho^{-1}(\rho(x))-\left(\rho^{-1}\left(\rho\left(c_{i}\right)\right)+t_{i}\left(\rho(x)-\rho\left(c_{i}\right)\right)\right)\right| \\
& \lesssim \frac{1}{2}\left|\rho(x)-\rho\left(c_{i}\right)\right|^{2} c \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(2^{\ell} / \sqrt{c} \lambda\right)^{2} c=O(\lambda)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $c$ is the maximum absolute value of the curvature in $T$. The inequality here uses the fact that $P_{i}$ is almost-planar. This is equivalent to

$$
\left(x-c_{i}\right)=\left(\rho(x)-\rho\left(c_{i}\right)\right) \cdot t_{i}+O(\lambda)
$$

Multiplying it with $i \omega a_{i j}$ and taking exponential gives the approximation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\exp \left(i \omega a_{i j} \cdot\left(x-c_{i}\right)\right) \sim \exp \left(i\left(\omega a_{i j} \cdot t_{i}\right)\left(\rho(x)-\rho\left(c_{i}\right)\right)\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $S$ is almost-planar, the same argument works for $\left(y-c_{j}\right)$ and gives

$$
\left(y-c_{j}\right)=\left(\rho(y)-\rho\left(c_{j}\right)\right) \cdot t_{j}+O(\lambda)
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\exp \left(-i \omega a_{i j} \cdot\left(y-c_{j}\right)\right) \sim \exp \left(i\left(-\omega a_{i j} \cdot t_{j}\right)\left(\rho(y)-\rho\left(c_{j}\right)\right)\right) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can now further approximate the phase function of the complex exponentials in (8) and (9) as follows. Noticing that $\omega a_{i j} \cdot t_{i} \in[-\omega, \omega]$, we partition the interval $[-\omega, \omega]$ into $2^{\ell_{i}+1}$ equally spaced subintervals with a set $K_{i}$ of $2^{\ell_{i}+1}+1$ gridpoints. We define $[k]_{i}$ to the value of rounding $k$ to the nearest gridpoint in $K_{i}$. Then

$$
\left(\omega a_{i j} \cdot t_{i}-\left[\omega a_{i j} \cdot t_{i}\right]_{i}\right)\left(\rho(x)-\rho\left(c_{i}\right)\right) \leq \frac{2 \omega}{2^{\ell_{i}+1}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2^{\ell_{i}} \lambda}{2}=\frac{2 \pi}{4}=O(1)
$$

Thus, replacing the phase $\omega a_{i j} \cdot t_{i}$ with $\left[\omega a_{i j} \cdot t_{i}\right]_{i}$ in (8) introduces an extra non-oscillatory term

$$
\begin{equation*}
\exp \left(i \omega a_{i j} \cdot\left(x-c_{i}\right)\right) \sim \exp \left(i\left[\omega a_{i j} \cdot t_{i}\right]_{i}\left(\rho(x)-\rho\left(c_{i}\right)\right)\right) \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, we partition the interval $[-\omega, \omega]$ into $2^{\ell_{j}}$ equal pieces with a set $K_{j}$ of $2^{\ell_{j}+1}+1$ gridpoints. By defining $[k]_{j}$ to the value of rounding $k$ to the nearest gridpoint in $K_{j}$, we again have for $y \in S$

$$
\left(-\omega a_{i j} \cdot t_{j}-\left[-\omega a_{i j} \cdot t_{j}\right]_{j}\right)\left(\rho(y)-\rho\left(c_{j}\right)\right) \leq \frac{2 \omega}{2^{\ell_{j}+1}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2^{\ell_{j}} \lambda}{2}=\frac{2 \pi}{4}=O(1)
$$

This change of the phase function also introduces an extra non-oscillatory term

$$
\begin{equation*}
\exp \left(-i \omega a_{i j} \cdot\left(y-c_{j}\right)\right) \sim \exp \left(i\left[-\omega a_{i j} \cdot t_{j}\right]_{j}\left(\rho(y)-\rho\left(c_{j}\right)\right)\right) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

By introducing

$$
\begin{align*}
& k_{i j}^{i}=\left[\omega a_{i j} t_{i}\right]_{i} \\
& k_{i j}^{j}=\left[-\omega a_{i j} t_{j}\right]_{j} \\
& U_{i}(x, k)=\exp \left(i k\left(\rho(x)-\rho\left(c_{i}\right)\right)\right) \\
& U_{j}(y, k)=\exp \left(i k\left(\rho(y)-\rho\left(c_{j}\right)\right)\right) \tag{12}
\end{align*}
$$

and putting (10) and (11) in (7), we have the following approximation

$$
\exp (i \omega|x-y|) \sim U_{i}\left(x, k_{i j}^{i}\right) \cdot \exp \left(i \omega\left(c_{i}-c_{j}\right) a_{i j}\right) \cdot U_{j}\left(y, k_{i j}^{j}\right)
$$

for all $x \in P_{i}$ and $y \in P_{j}$.

Since the kernel $G(x, y)$ and its derivatives have the same oscillation pattern as $\exp (i \omega|x-y|), U_{i}\left(x, k_{i j}^{i}\right)$ and $U_{j}\left(y, k_{i j}^{j}\right)$ also capture the oscillations of $G(x, y)$ for $x \in P_{i}$ and $y \in P_{j}$. Therefore, repeating the same argument gives the following representation of the block $M_{i j}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{i j}(x, y)=U_{i}\left(x, k_{i j}^{i}\right) \cdot \tilde{M}_{i j}(x, y) \cdot U_{j}\left(y, k_{i j}^{j}\right) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $x \in P_{i}$ and $y \in P_{j}$, where the non-oscillatory term $\tilde{M}_{i j}(x, y)$ is defined through this representation. Since $\tilde{M}_{i j}(x, y)$ is non-oscillatory, we can approximate it with Chebyshev interpolation. For this, we define

- $R_{i}$ and $R_{j}$ to be the Chebyshev grids of a constant size $m_{c}$ in $P_{i}$ and $P_{j}$, respectively, and
- $I_{i}$ and $I_{j}$ to be the corresponding interpolation operators, with entries given by $I_{i}(x, b)$ for $b \in R_{i}$ and $I_{j}(y, b)$ for $b \in R_{j}$.
This results the following approximation

$$
\tilde{M}_{i j}(x, y) \approx I_{i} \cdot \tilde{M}_{i j}\left(R_{i}, R_{j}\right) \cdot I_{j}^{t}
$$

Putting this together with 13) and using matrix form gives

$$
M_{i j} \approx \operatorname{diag}\left(U_{i}\left(:, k_{i j}^{i}\right)\right) \cdot I_{i} \cdot \tilde{M}_{i j}\left(R_{i}, R_{j}\right) \cdot I_{j}^{t} \cdot \operatorname{diag}\left(U_{j}\left(:, k_{i j}^{j}\right)\right)
$$

For the data-sparse representation and the preconditioner, we need an aggressive rank-1 approximation for $M_{i j}$ of form

$$
\left.M_{i j} \approx U_{i}\left(:, k_{i j}^{i}\right)\right) e_{i j} U_{j}\left(\cdot, k_{i j}^{j}\right)^{t}=\operatorname{diag}\left(U_{i}\left(:, k_{i j}^{i}\right)\right) \cdot w_{i} \cdot e_{i j} \cdot w_{j}^{t} \cdot \operatorname{diag}\left(U_{j}\left(\cdot, k_{i j}^{j}\right)\right),
$$

where $e_{i j}$ is a constant to be determined and $w_{i}$ and $w_{j}$ are the all-one vectors of length $2^{\ell_{i}} p$, and $2^{\ell_{j}} p$, respectively. To determine $e_{i j}$, we can solve for it from a least square problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
e_{i j}=\operatorname{argmin}_{e}\left\|I_{i} \cdot \tilde{M}_{i j}\left(R_{i}, R_{j}\right) \cdot I_{j}^{t}-w_{i} \cdot e \cdot w_{j}^{t}\right\|^{2} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

The solution is

$$
e_{i j}=\left(w_{i}^{\dagger} \cdot I_{i}\right) \cdot \tilde{M}_{i j}\left(R_{i}, R_{j}\right) \cdot\left(I_{j}^{t} \cdot\left(w_{j}^{t}\right)^{\dagger}\right) .
$$

Notice that $\left(w_{i}^{\dagger} \cdot I_{i}\right)$ and $\left(I_{j}^{t} \cdot\left(w_{j}^{t}\right)^{\dagger}\right)$ only depend on $\ell_{i}$ and $\ell_{j}$ respectively. Therefore, they can be precomputed and the remaining cost of computing $e_{i j}$ is equal to $O\left(m_{c}^{2}\right)$.

Going through all pairs $(i, j)$ with $i \neq j$ yields the following approximation for the off-diagonal part of $M$ :

$$
U E U^{t}
$$

Here

$$
U=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
U_{1} & & \\
& \ddots & \\
& & U_{m}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $U_{i}$ is a matrix of size $2^{\ell_{i}} p \times\left(2^{\ell_{i}+1}+1\right)$ given by (12). The $E$ matrix also has a $m \times m$ block form

$$
E=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
E_{11} & \ldots & E_{1 m} \\
\vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
E_{m 1} & \ldots & E_{m m}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $E_{i j}$ is a matrix of size $\left(2^{\ell_{i}+1}+1\right) \times\left(2^{\ell_{j}+1}+1\right)$ with rows and columns indexed by $K_{i}$ and $K_{j} . E_{i j}$ is a matrix with value $e_{i j}$ at entry $\left(k_{i j}^{i}, k_{i j}^{j}\right)$ and zero everywhere else. Here we emphasize that

- $U_{i}$ is a partial Fourier matrix, and
- $E$ is extremely sparse.

These observations turn out to be essential in the construction of the preconditioner.

Summarizing the discussion for both the diagonal and off-diagonal blocks, we hold the data-sparse approximation

$$
\begin{equation*}
M \approx B+U E U^{t} . \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

2.2. Directional preconditioner. To precondition (5), we use the approximation (15) and consider the solution $q$ of

$$
\left(B+U E U^{t}\right) q=f .
$$

First, introducing new vectors $r=-U^{t} q$ and $p=-E r$ gives an equivalent augmented system

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
B & U & 0  \tag{16}\\
U^{t} & 0 & I \\
0 & I & E
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
q \\
p \\
r
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
f \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right] .
$$

Factorizing the matrix in (16) gives

$$
\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
I & &  \tag{17}\\
U^{t} B^{-1} & I & \\
& & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
I & & \\
& I & \\
& -T & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
B & & \\
& -S & \\
& & W
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
I & & \\
& I & -T \\
& & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
I & B^{-1} U & \\
& I & \\
& & I
\end{array}\right]
$$

with

$$
S=U^{t} B^{-1} U, \quad T=S^{-1}, \quad W=E+T .
$$

Since both $U$ and $B$ are block-diagonal, $S$ and $T$ are also block-diagonal

$$
S=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
S_{1} & & \\
& \ddots & \\
& & S_{m}
\end{array}\right], \quad T=\left[\begin{array}{lll}
T_{1} & & \\
& \ddots & \\
& & T_{m}
\end{array}\right],
$$

with $S_{i}=U_{i}^{t} B_{i}^{-1} U_{i}$ and $T_{i}=S_{i}^{-1}$. Inverting the factorization (17) gives

$$
\begin{align*}
{\left[\begin{array}{l}
q \\
p \\
r
\end{array}\right]=} & {\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
I & -B^{-1} U & \\
& I & \\
& & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
I & & \\
& I & T \\
& & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
B^{-1} & & \\
& -T & \\
& & W^{-1}
\end{array}\right] } \\
& {\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
I & & \\
& I & \\
& T & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
I & \\
-U^{t} B^{-1} & I & \\
& & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
f \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right] . } \tag{18}
\end{align*}
$$

Applying (18) exactly can be quite costly. In order to construct an efficient preconditioner, it is essential to approximate (18) aggressively while without sacrificing too much accuracy. For a matrix $A$, we shall use the notation $\lfloor A\rfloor$ to stand for its approximation, but the actual approximation scheme can be different for different matrices.

- First, the $2^{\ell_{i}} p \times 2^{\ell_{i}} p$ matrix $B_{i}$ is the restriction of the integral operator to a straight segment of length $2^{\ell_{i}} \lambda$. Since the geometry is fixed and there are only a few choices for $\ell_{i}$, all $B_{i}$ and $B_{i}^{-1}$ can be precomputed. Since this is also a one-dimensional problem (i.e., restriction to a straight segment), we can use the hierarchical matrix algebra [6] or the hierarchical semi-separable (HSS) matrices [29] to compress and apply $B_{i}^{-1}$ efficiently. We denote the approximation of $B_{i}^{-1}$ with $\left\lfloor B_{i}^{-1}\right\rfloor$ and accordingly $\left\lfloor B^{-1}\right\rfloor$ for $B^{-1}$.
- Second, since each $U_{i}$ is a partial Fourier matrix, applying $U$ and $U^{t}$ reduces to a number of FFTs, which is highly efficient.
- Third, $S_{i}$ and $T_{i}$ can be precomputed as they only depend on $U_{i}$ and $B_{i}$, both of which have already been precomputed. An important observation is that $T_{i}$ is numerically sparse (see Figure 2 2). Therefore, for the sake of efficiency, we approximate $T_{i}$ with $\left\lfloor T_{i}\right\rfloor$, which is obtained by thresholding the entries in absolute value. In the numerical results, the number of non-zero entries in $\left\lfloor T_{i}\right\rfloor$ is kept proportional to the dimension of $T_{i}$. This approximation of $T$ is denoted by $\lfloor T\rfloor$.
- The final task is to build an approximate inverse of $W=E+T$. Here, the essential observation is that
- $T$ concentrates on its anti-diagonal (see Figure 2).

Based on this, we define $\lfloor W\rfloor$ to be the sum of $E$ and the antidiagonal of $T$ (i.e., thresholding the rest entries of $T$ to zero). $\lfloor W\rfloor$ is extremely sparse as the number of non-zeros is about $3 / 2$ times the dimension of the matrix in most cases. Hence, we perform a sparse LU decomposition and set

$$
\lfloor W\rfloor=L_{\lfloor W\rfloor} R_{\lfloor W\rfloor},
$$

where $L_{\lfloor W\rfloor}$ and $R_{\lfloor W\rfloor}$ are sparse upper and lower triangular matrices up to possible permutations.


Figure 2. The absolute value of the entries of $S_{i}$ (left) and $T_{i}$ (right) in logarithmic scale (base 10) for the sound-soft case (top row) and the sound-hard case (bottom row). For this specific segment, $\ell_{i}=5$ and $p=8$. Hence, there are 256 equally-spaced quadrature points in $P_{i}$ and the cardinality of $K_{i}$ is 65 . Both $S_{i}$ and $T_{i}$ are numerical sparse and antidiagonally dominant.

Once these approximations have been formed, we approximate (18) with

$$
\begin{align*}
{\left[\begin{array}{l}
q \\
p \\
r
\end{array}\right] } & \Leftarrow\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
I & -\left\lfloor B^{-1}\right\rfloor U & \\
& I & \\
& & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
I & & \\
& I & \lfloor T\rfloor \\
& & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\left\lfloor B^{-1}\right\rfloor & & \\
& -\lfloor T\rfloor & \\
& & R_{\lfloor W\rfloor}^{-1} L_{\lfloor W\rfloor}^{-1}
\end{array}\right] \\
9) & {\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
I & & \\
& I & \\
& \lfloor T\rfloor & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
I & & \\
-U^{t}\left\lfloor B^{-1}\right\rfloor & I & \\
& & I
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
f \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right] . } \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

We emphasize again that the following approximations are used for computing (19):

- replacing $B^{-1}$ with $\left\lfloor B^{-1}\right\rfloor$ via hierarchical matrix or HSS approximation for each $B_{i}^{-1}$,
- applying $U$ rapidly via fast Fourier transform for each $U_{i}$,
- replacing $T$ with $\lfloor T\rfloor$ via sparse approximation for each $T_{i}$, and
- replacing $W^{-1}$ with $R_{\lfloor W\rfloor}^{-1} L_{[W\rfloor}^{-1}$ via sparse backward and forward substitutions for $L_{\lfloor W\rfloor}$ and $R_{\lfloor W\rfloor}$.
Based on (19), our preconditioner is defined as follows. For a given $f$, it
- forms vector $\left(f^{t}, 0,0\right)^{t}$,
- carries out the computation of (19), and
- extracts the first component $q$ of the resulting vector.

Since the key step of constructing a data-sparse representation of the operator relies on the directional nature of the kernel $G(x, y)$, we name it directional preconditioner.
2.3. Complexity analysis. We first consider the setup cost the preconditioner, i.e., the approximate factorization in (19). Since the matrices $B_{i}^{-1}$ and $T_{i}$ for a segment $P_{i}$ only depend on the integer length parameter $\ell_{i}$ of $P_{i}$, the possible choices for these matrices are fixed and independent of the scatterer. All these possible choices can be precomputed once and for all and stored for future use.

As a result, the setup algorithm only consists of two parts: the evaluation of $E$ and $\lfloor W\rfloor$, and the sparse factorization $\lfloor W\rfloor=L_{\lfloor W\rfloor} R_{\lfloor W\rfloor}$.

- For the first part, since $E$ only has $\omega$ non-zero entries and computing each entry takes $O(1)$ steps (14), the overall cost for this step is $O(\omega)=O(n)$. Once $E$ is formed, computing $\lfloor W\rfloor$ also takes at most $O(n)$ steps.
- The cost of the second part is more complicated. For a geometry that is uniformly convex, it can be shown that the number of non-zero entries in $L_{\lfloor W\rfloor}$ and $R_{\lfloor W\rfloor}$ is $O(n \log n)$. However, for a boundary with a significant flat part, the cost increases to $O\left(n^{3 / 2}\right)$. The reason is that the restriction of $\lfloor W\rfloor$ to the first and last members of all $K_{i}$ (i.e., the most tangential directions) is of size $O(\sqrt{n}) \times O(\sqrt{n})$ and is filled significantly due to the flat part. Constructing LU decomposition directly for this part already requires $O\left(n^{3 / 2}\right)$ steps. In order to reduce the complexity, the LU factorization of this submatrix is computed with the hierarchical matrix algebra [6] or the HSS matrices [29] as the flat part the problem is essentially a 1D problem. Using these hierarchical algorithms reduces the factorization cost to $O(n)$.
Adding these numbers together shows that the setup cost of the preconditioner is of order $O(n)$.

Now consider the application cost of the preconditioner (19). For the major steps of applying (19), we have the following estimates:

- The application of $\left\lfloor B^{-1}\right\rfloor$ is linear time due to the hierarchical matrix algebra approximation for $B_{i}^{-1}$.
- The application of $U$ is $O(n \log n)$ since each $U_{i}$ is a partial Fourier matrix and the FFT can be used.
- The application of $\lfloor T\rfloor$ is $O(n)$ since the number of non-zeros in $\lfloor T\rfloor$ is proportional to $O(n)$ after we threshold each $T_{i}$.
- Applying $R_{\lfloor W\rfloor}^{-1} L_{\lfloor W\rfloor}^{-1}$ also takes linear time by using sparse backward and forward substitution algorithm, along with the hierarchical matrix algebra or HSS matrix for the two tangential submatrices.

Putting these together shows that the application cost of the preconditioner scales like $O(n \log n)$.

## 3. Numerical Results

The proposed preconditioner is implemented in Matlab. The numerical results in this section are obtained on a desktop computer with a 3.60 GHz CPU. Numerical tests are carried out for two domains shown in Figure 3 .


Figure 3. The two scatterers used in the numerical tests. (a) an ellipse. (b) a bean-shaped object.

In these experiments, we discretize the domain boundary using the Nyström method with $p=8$ points per wavelength. The Chebyshev grid size $m_{c}$ used to construct $e_{i j}$ is set to be 10 . The boundary condition for both the Dirichlet and Neumann problems are obtained by considering an incoming plane wave pointing towards the positive $x$ direction in $\mathrm{R}^{2}$.

For the iterative solution of the linear system, we use GMRES with relative tolerance equal to $10^{-6}$ and restart number equal to 80 . For the matrixvector multiplication routine in the iterative solver, the fast algorithm described in 30 is used.

We first consider the Dirichlet problem of sound-soft scattering. The results for the two domains are reported in Tables 1 and 2, where

- $T_{s}$ is the setup time of the preconditioner in seconds,
- $T_{a}$ is the application time of the preconditioner in seconds,
- $T_{m}$ is the matrix-vector multiplication time using the algorithm from 30,
- $n_{p}$ is the iteration number of the iterative solver when the preconditioner is used, and finally,
- $n_{n}$ is the iteration number without any preconditioning.

The ratio $T_{a} / T_{m}$ is a good indicator of computation cost of applying the preconditioner, while $n_{p} / n_{n}$ shows the effectiveness of the preconditioner.

The results show that the setup time of the preconditioner is typically equivalent to a couple of fast matrix-vector multiplications, while the application time of the preconditioner is much lower. Therefore, the cost of applying the preconditioner is almost negligible during the iterative solution.

| $\omega$ | $n$ | $T_{s}$ | $T_{a}$ | $T_{m}$ | $n_{p}$ | $n_{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $5.3 \mathrm{e}+03$ | $3.3 \mathrm{e}+04$ | $5.3 \mathrm{e}+00$ | $2.4 \mathrm{e}-02$ | $1.5 \mathrm{e}+00$ | 14 | 47 |
| $2.1 \mathrm{e}+04$ | $1.3 \mathrm{e}+05$ | $2.5 \mathrm{e}+01$ | $7.4 \mathrm{e}-02$ | $6.3 \mathrm{e}+00$ | 16 | 71 |
| $8.5 \mathrm{e}+04$ | $5.2 \mathrm{e}+05$ | $1.5 \mathrm{e}+02$ | $3.7 \mathrm{e}-01$ | $2.8 \mathrm{e}+01$ | 19 | 114 |

Table 1. Numerical results of the sound-soft scattering for the ellipse.

| $\omega$ | $n$ | $T_{s}$ | $T_{a}$ | $T_{m}$ | $n_{p}$ | $n_{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $5.2 \mathrm{e}+03$ | $3.3 \mathrm{e}+04$ | $5.3 \mathrm{e}+00$ | $1.0 \mathrm{e}-02$ | $1.8 \mathrm{e}+00$ | 14 | 50 |
| $2.1 \mathrm{e}+04$ | $1.3 \mathrm{e}+05$ | $2.2 \mathrm{e}+01$ | $5.6 \mathrm{e}-02$ | $7.7 \mathrm{e}+00$ | 16 | 74 |
| $8.3 \mathrm{e}+04$ | $5.2 \mathrm{e}+05$ | $9.2 \mathrm{e}+01$ | $3.2 \mathrm{e}-01$ | $3.3 \mathrm{e}+01$ | 18 | 118 |

TABLE 2. Numerical results of the sound-soft scattering for the bean-shaped object.

Second, the iteration number of the preconditioned system is significantly lower than the one of the unpreconditioned system. More importantly, the iteration number of the former scales like $O(\log \omega)$, thus almost frequencyindependent.

Next, we consider the Neumann problem of sound-hard scattering. The results for the two domains are reported in Tables 3 and 4. The results are qualitatively similar to the one for the Dirichlet problem and demonstrate the effectiveness of the preconditioner for the sound-hard scattering problem.

| $\omega$ | $n$ | $T_{s}$ | $T_{a}$ | $T_{m}$ | $n_{p}$ | $n_{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $5.3 \mathrm{e}+03$ | $3.3 \mathrm{e}+04$ | $7.3 \mathrm{e}+00$ | $1.3 \mathrm{e}-02$ | $1.5 \mathrm{e}+00$ | 15 | 38 |
| $2.1 \mathrm{e}+04$ | $1.3 \mathrm{e}+05$ | $3.1 \mathrm{e}+01$ | $8.2 \mathrm{e}-02$ | $6.4 \mathrm{e}+00$ | 19 | 56 |
| $8.5 \mathrm{e}+04$ | $5.2 \mathrm{e}+05$ | $1.7 \mathrm{e}+02$ | $4.2 \mathrm{e}-01$ | $2.8 \mathrm{e}+01$ | 23 | 81 |

Table 3. Numerical results of the sound-hard scattering for the ellipse.

| $\omega$ | $n$ | $T_{s}$ | $T_{a}$ | $T_{m}$ | $n_{p}$ | $n_{n}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $5.2 \mathrm{e}+03$ | $3.3 \mathrm{e}+04$ | $7.3 \mathrm{e}+00$ | $1.7 \mathrm{e}-02$ | $1.9 \mathrm{e}+00$ | 15 | 36 |
| $2.1 \mathrm{e}+04$ | $1.3 \mathrm{e}+05$ | $2.9 \mathrm{e}+01$ | $4.7 \mathrm{e}-02$ | $7.7 \mathrm{e}+00$ | 18 | 51 |
| $8.3 \mathrm{e}+04$ | $5.2 \mathrm{e}+05$ | $1.2 \mathrm{e}+02$ | $2.9 \mathrm{e}-01$ | $3.4 \mathrm{e}+01$ | 22 | 72 |

Table 4. Numerical results of the sound-hard scattering for the bean-shaped object.

## 4. Conclusion

This paper presented the directional preconditioner for the combined field integral equations (CFIEs) of high frequency acoustic obstacle scattering in 2 D . The main idea is to construct a data-sparse approximation of the linear operator, transform it into an approximate sparse linear system, and form an approximate inverse using efficient sparse and hierarchical linear algebra algorithms.

We have assumed that the boundary is discretized with an equally spaced set of discretization points. For non-equally spaced points, the construction goes through as well, except that the FFT has to be replaced with nonuniform FFTs. As a result, some of the scatterer-independent precomputation can become dependent on the discretization pattern.

A major part of future work is to extend this approach to 3D scatterers. While the main idea should work, the lack of equally-spaced discretization for general surfaces pose a clear challenge for this approach.

One potential long term goal is to construct a direct solver for the boundary integral equations of the obstacle scattering problem. It is not clear at this point whether such a direct solver even exists. However, this paper can be viewed a first step of exploring in this direction.

One important ingredient of our approach is to transform a dense oscillatory matrix to a sparse one. Once it is in a sparse form, we can leverage the amazing power of sparse linear algebra algorithms. While traditionally there is relatively little overlap between the work in integral equations and the one in sparse linear algebra, this work hints at fruitful exchange of ideas between these two fields.

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Department of Mathematics and Institute for Computational and Mathematical Engineering, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305

E-mail address: lexing@math.stanford.edu


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