A PARALLEL METHOD FOR SOLVING LAPLACE EQUATIONS WITH DIRICHLET DATA USING LOCAL BOUNDARY INTEGRAL EQUATIONS AND RANDOM WALKS *

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Abstract. In this paper, we will present a new approach for solving Laplace equations in general 3-D domains. The approach is based on a local computation method for the DtN mapping of the Laplace equation by combining a deterministic (local) boundary integral equation method and the probabilistic Feynman-Kac formula of PDE solutions. This hybridization produces a parallel algorithm where the bulk of the computation has no need for data communications. Given the Dirichlet data of the solution on a domain boundary, a local boundary integral equation (BIE) will be established over the boundary of a local region formed by a hemisphere superimposed on the domain boundary. By using a homogeneous Dirichlet Green's function for the whole sphere, the resulting BIE will involve only Dirichlet data (solution value) over the hemisphere surface, but over the patch of the domain boundary intersected by the hemisphere, both Dirichlet and Neumann data will be used. Then, firstly, the solution value on the hemisphere surface is computed by the Feynman-Kac formula, which will be implemented by a Monte Carlo walk on spheres (WOS) algorithm. Secondly, a boundary collocation method is applied to solve the integral equation on the aforementioned local patch of the domain boundary to yield the required Neumann data there. As a result, a local method of finding the DtN mapping is obtained, which can be used to find all the Neumann data on the whole domain boundary in a parallel manner. Finally, the potential solution in the whole space can be computed by an integral representation using both the Dirichlet and Neumann data over the domain boundary.

Key words. DtN mapping, last-passage method, Monte Carlo method, WOS, boundary integral equations, Laplace equations

AMS subject classifications. 65C05, 65N99, 78M25, 92C45

1. Introduction. Fast and parallel scalable solvers for 3-D Poisson and modified Helmholtz partial differential equations (PDEs) constitute the major computational cost for many large-scale scientific computational problems, such as Poisson/Helmholtz solvers in projection type methods of incompressible flows [8][30], electrostatic potential problems in molecular biology, and enforcing divergence-free constraints of magnetic fields in plasma MHD simulations, etc. For the electrostatic capacitance problems for conductors, boundary element methods (BEMs) or finite element methods (FEMs) are often used to compute the charge density in the engineering community, for example, the indirect BEM FastCap [25][26], the direct BEM QMM-BEM [33], hierarchical extractors HiCap and PhiCap [29][32], and the parallel adaptive FEM

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ParAFEMCap [7], etc. BEMs [3] need to discretize entire conductor surfaces, sometimes even the dielectric interfaces, into small panels, and construct a linear system by the method of moments or collocation methods. These deterministic methods are highly accurate and versatile, but are global, i.e., even if the charge density at only one point is required, a full linear system has to be constructed and solved. In general, the resulting linear algebraic systems are solved by iterative methods such as the multi-grid methods [2] or the domain decomposition methods [31], either as a solver or as a pre-conditioner. Meanwhile, for integral equation discretization, the fast multipole method (FMM) [15] can be used in conjunction with a Krylov subspace iterative solver. All these solvers are O(N) in principle and iterative in nature, and require expensive surface or volume meshes. The parallel scalability of these solvers on a large number of processors poses many challenges and is the subject of intensive research.

In contrast, random methods can give local solutions of PDEs [14][27][17], and they have been applied to obtain solutions at specific sites for many real world problems such as modern VLSI chips with millions of circuit elements in the area of chip design industry. For instance, the QuickCap, as the chip industry's gold standards produced by the leading EDA companies Synopsys, is a random method. The key advantage of the random methods is their localization. For example, QuickCap [20][19] can calculate the potential or charge density at only one point locally without finding the solution elsewhere. Usually, random methods are based on the Feynman-Kac probabilistic formula and the potential (or charge density) is expressed as a weighted average of the boundary values [17]. The Feynman-Kac formula allows a local solution of the PDE, and fast sampling techniques of the diffusion paths with the walk on sphere (WOS) methods are available for simple PDEs such as Laplace or modified Helmholtz equations. However, it is impractical to use the probabilistic formula to find the solution of these PDEs in the whole space as too much sampling will be needed.

For current multi-core petaflops per second computing platforms, the scalability of the algorithms becomes the major concern for the development of new algorithms. Much research has been done in order to achieve such a scalability and parallelism in the above deterministic algorithms for simulation capability for realistic engineering and scientific problems. To meet this challenge, in this paper, we will propose a hybrid method for computing the Neumann data (derivative) of the solution from its Dirichlet data by combining the probabilistic Feynman-Kac formula and a deterministic local integral equation over a domain boundary $\partial\Omega$. The hybrid method will allow us to get the Neumann data efficiently over a local patch of the domain boundary, which will result in a simple intrinsic parallel method for solving the complete potential problems in general 3-D domains through an integral representation of the available Dirichlet and Neumann data.

The rest of the paper will be organized in the following sections. Firstly, we will present some background material on the Dirichlet to Neumann (DtN) mapping and also the Feynman-Kac probabilistic solution of elliptic PDEs. Secondly, we will review a related last-passage random walk method proposed in [14] which calculates the Neumann data (charge distribution) at one single point over a flat surface where the Dirichlet data is a constant. Even though this is a very limited case for the DtN problem, it demonstrates some key issues and difficulties in how to use the Feynman-Kac formula and the WOS in finding the Neumann data. Thirdly, we will present our hybrid method, which allows the calculation of the Neumann data for a general Dirichlet data on the flat surface. Then, in Section 4 the hybrid method is extended to calculate the Neumann data over a patch of the boundary for arbitrary Dirichlet data and curved boundaries. In Section 5 numerical tests will be presented to show the accuracy and potential of the proposed method. Finally, conclusions and discussions for open research issues and parallel aspect of the proposed method will be given in Section 6.

2. Background on DtN mapping and solutions of potential equations. The DtN mapping between the Dirichlet data (solution value) and the Neumann data (the normal derivative of the solution) of a Poisson equation is relevant in both engineering applications and mathematical study of elliptic PDEs. In the electrostatic potential problems, the surface charge distribution σ_s on the surface $\partial\Omega$ of a conductor Ω , as required in the capacitance calculation of conductive interconnects in VLSI chips, is exactly the normal derivative of the electrostatic potential u as implied from Gauss's law for the electric field $\mathbf{E} = -\nabla u$, i.e.,

$$\sigma_s = \mathbf{E} \cdot \mathbf{n}|_{\partial\Omega} = -\left. \frac{\partial u}{\partial \mathbf{n}} \right|_{\partial\Omega}.$$
 (2.1)

On the other hand, the DtN mapping also plays an important role in the study of the Poisson equations. As the inhomogeneous right-hand-side of a Poisson equation is usually known, we could use a simple subtraction technique to reduce the Poisson equation to a Laplace equation, but with a modified boundary data. Therefore, in the rest of this paper we will present our method for the Laplace equation in a domain Ω where a general Dirichlet data is given on the boundary $\partial\Omega$. If we are able to compute the Neumann data for the given Dirichlet data, namely the following DtN mapping:

DtN:
$$u|_{\partial\Omega} \to \frac{\partial u}{\partial \mathbf{n}}\Big|_{\partial\Omega}$$
, (2.2)

then, the solution $u(\mathbf{x})$ at any point \mathbf{x} in the whole space can be found simply by the following integral representation:

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{\partial\Omega} G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \frac{\partial u(\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_y}} ds_y - \int_{\partial\Omega} \frac{\partial G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_y}} u(\mathbf{y}) ds_y, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \backslash \partial\Omega, \quad (2.3)$$

where $G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ is the fundamental solution to the Laplace operator, namely,

$$G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|}.$$
 (2.4)

A similar NtD (Neumann to Dirichlet) mapping from the Neumann data to the Dirichlet data can also be defined if the Neumann data yields a unique solution to the PDE. In either case, with both Dirichlet and Neumann data at hand, the solution of a Laplace equation can be obtained by the representation formula in (2.3).

Therefore, by finding the DtN or NtD mapping of the relevant elliptic PDE solutions in an efficient manner, we could produce fast numerical methods for many electrical engineering and fluid mechanics applications.

The Feynman-Kac formula [10][11] relates the Ito diffusion paths to the solution $u(\mathbf{x})$ of the following general elliptic problem

$$L(u) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{3} b_i(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} + \sum_{i,j=1}^{3} a_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = f(\mathbf{x}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in \Omega,$$

$$u|_{\partial\Omega} = \phi(\mathbf{x}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega,$$
(2.5)

where L is an uniformly elliptic differential operator, i.e.

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^{3} a_{ij}(\mathbf{x})\xi_i\xi_j \ge \mu |\boldsymbol{\xi}|^2, \quad \text{if} \quad \mathbf{x} \in \Omega, \boldsymbol{\xi} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \quad (\mu > 0), \tag{2.6}$$

and $a_{ij}(\mathbf{x})$ and $b_i(\mathbf{x})$ are uniformly Lipschitz continuous in $\overline{\Omega}$. Also the domain Ω is assumed to have a C^2 boundary and the boundary data $\phi \in C^0$ $(\partial \Omega)$.

If $X_t(\omega)$ is an Ito diffusion defined by the following stochastic differential equation

$$dX_t = b(X_t)dt + \alpha(X_t)dB_t, \tag{2.7}$$

where $B_t(\omega)$ is the Brownian motion, $[a_{ij}] = \frac{1}{2}\alpha(x)\alpha^{\mathrm{T}}(x)$, then, the following Feynman-Kac formula gives a probabilistic solution for (2.5) as

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = E^x \left(\phi(X_{\tau_{\Omega}}) \right) + E^x \left[\int_0^{\tau_{\Omega}} f(X_t) dt \right], \tag{2.8}$$

where the expectation is taken over all sample paths $X_{t=0}(\omega) = \mathbf{x}$ and τ_{Ω} is the first hit time (or exit time) of the domain Ω . For the purpose of this paper, we will only consider (2.8) for Laplace equations (f = 0).

For the Laplace equation, the Ito diffusion is just the Brownian motion and the solution can be simply rewritten in terms of a harmonic measure, which measures the probability of the Brownian paths hitting a given area on the boundary surface,

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = E^x(\phi(X_{\tau_{\Omega}})) = \int_{\partial \Omega} \phi(\mathbf{y}) d\mu_{\Omega}^x, \tag{2.9}$$

where

$$\mu_{\Omega}^{x}(F) = P^{x}\{\omega | X_{\tau_{\Omega}}(\omega) \in F, X_{0}(\omega) = \mathbf{x}\}, \ F \subset \partial\Omega, \ \mathbf{x} \in \Omega.$$
 (2.10)

The harmonic measure can be shown to be related to Green's function $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ of the Laplace equation in the domain Ω with a homogeneous boundary condition, i.e.,

$$-\Delta g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in \Omega,$$

$$g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})|_{\mathbf{x} \in \partial \Omega} = 0.$$
 (2.11)

By comparing (2.9) with the following integral representation of the solution of the Laplace equation with Green's function $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$,

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = -\int_{\partial\Omega} \phi(\mathbf{y}) \frac{\partial g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_y}} ds_y, \qquad (2.12)$$

we conclude that the hitting probability, now denoted as $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})ds_y = \mu_{\Omega}^x([\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} + ds_y])$, has the following connection to Green's function of the domain Ω [9],

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = -\frac{\partial g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{y}}}.$$
 (2.13)

Therefore, if the domain is a ball centered at \mathbf{x} where a path starts, we have a uniform probability for the path to hit the surface of the ball. This fact will be a key factor in the design of random walk on spheres (WOS), which allows us to describe the Brownian motion and its exit location without explicitly finding its trajectory. Instead, a sequence of walks or jumps over spheres will allow the Brownian path to hit the boundary $\partial\Omega$ (for practical purpose, within an absorption ε -shell as proposed in [22]). Specifically, as indicated by (2.13), the probability of a Brownian path hitting on a spherical surface is given exactly by the normal derivative of Green's function of the sphere (with a homogeneous boundary condition). Therefore, if we draw a ball centered at the starting point \mathbf{x} of a Brownian path, it will hit the spherical surface with a uniform probability as long as the ball does not intersect with the domain boundary $\partial\Omega$. So, we can make a jump for the Brownian particle to \mathbf{x}_1 , sampled with a uniform distribution on the spherical surface. Next, a

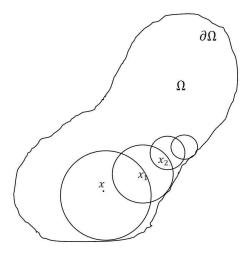


Fig. 2.1. WOS sampling of Brownian paths

second ball now centered at \mathbf{x}_1 will be drawn, not intersecting with the domain boundary $\partial\Omega$, and the Brownian particle can make a second jump to \mathbf{x}_2 on the surface of the second ball. This procedure (as illustrated in Fig. 2.1, termed as WOS) [24][14][23] is repeated until the Brownian particle hits the boundary of Ω (within the ε -shell of absorption) where it is denoted as $\mathbf{x}_{\tau_{\Omega}}$ and the value of the boundary data $\phi(\mathbf{x}_{\tau_{\Omega}})$ will be recorded and eventually all such data will be used to compute the expectation in (2.9). In real applications, due to the relation between Green's function $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ of a domain and the hitting probability, Green's Function First Passage (GFFP) methods for shapes other than spheres such as rectangles in softwares including QuickCap [20][19] have been used to find capacitances of conductors in interconnect layouts, which are generally of rectangular shapes.

Moreover, in applying the Feynman-Kac formula (2.9) to find the potential in the exterior domain of infinite extent (with a vanishing condition for the potential at the infinity), as some paths will go to infinity, a truncation procedure by a large sphere is used in our simulation of WOS where trajectories outside the big sphere will be ignored and considered as ending at infinity where the potential value vanishes. Theoretical estimate on the size of the truncation sphere can be found in [28].

3. Finding the Neumann data at one point on a flat boundary.

3.1. Review of the last-passage algorithm for charge density. In this subsection, we will review the last-passage Monte Carlo algorithm proposed in [14] for charge density, namely the Neumann data, at one point on a flat *conducting* surface.

For a flat portion of the boundary $\partial\Omega$ of a domain $\Omega=\{z<0\}$ in the 3-D

space held at a constant potential, we like to compute the charge density at a point $\mathbf{x} \in \partial \Omega$, namely, the normal derivation of the exterior potential outside Ω . In the last-passage method, a hemisphere is constructed with a radius a centered at \mathbf{x} as shown in Fig. 3.1. The upper hemispherical surface outside Ω is denoted as Γ and the 2-D disk of radius a centered at \mathbf{x} from the intersection of the hemisphere and the conducting boundary $\partial \Omega$ is denoted as

$$S_a \equiv S_a(\mathbf{x}). \tag{3.1}$$

In Section 2, the equivalence between the electrostatic potential u (which is assumed at value 1 on the conductor surface $\partial\Omega$) and diffusion problems is given. In the last-passage method [14], the quantity $v(\mathbf{x}) \equiv 1 - u(\mathbf{x})$ is considered, which will satisfy

$$v(\mathbf{x}) = 0, \quad \mathbf{x} \in S_a \tag{3.2}$$

and v=1 at infinity (or on an infinitely large sphere). By viewing $v(\mathbf{x}+\varepsilon)$ as the probability of a Brownian particle near the conducting surface $\partial\Omega$ starting at $\mathbf{x}+\varepsilon$ diffusing to infinity without ever coming back to the conducting surface, it was shown in [14] that the following probabilistic expression for $v(\mathbf{x}+\varepsilon)$ holds:

$$v(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon) \equiv 1 - u(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon) = -\int_{\Gamma} \widehat{g}(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon, \mathbf{y}) p_{y\infty} ds_y, \tag{3.3}$$

where $p_{y\infty}$ is the probability of a Brownian particle starting at \mathbf{y} and diffusing to infinity without ever coming back to the conducting surface $\partial\Omega$; thus, $p_{y\infty} = 0$ if $\mathbf{y} \in S_a$. In (3.3), the integral over Γ expresses the Markov property of the diffusing particles from $\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon$ to infinity with an intermediate stop on Γ . Specifically, $\widehat{g}(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon, \mathbf{y})$ gives the probability of a Brownian particle starting from $\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon$ and hitting the boundary of Γ , which is given by (2.13) via a homogeneous Green's function for the hemisphere over S_a , namely,

$$\widehat{g}(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon, y) = \frac{\partial g}{\partial \mathbf{n}_y}(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon, \mathbf{y}),$$
 (3.4)

and $g(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon, y)$ is defined in (2.11) for the hemisphere, whose analytical form can be obtained by an image method with respect to the spherical surface first, then to the plane z = 0, resulting in the use of three images. Specifically, we have

$$g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{s}}) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{s}}|} + \frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{q_{\mathrm{k}}}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{\mathrm{k}}|} + \frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{q_{\overline{\mathrm{s}}}}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{\overline{\mathrm{s}}}|} + \frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{q_{\overline{\mathrm{k}}}}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{\overline{\mathrm{k}}}|}, \quad (3.5)$$

where in the spherical coordinates the source location is $\mathbf{x}_s = (\rho_s, \theta_s, \phi_s)$, the Kelvin image location with respect to the sphere is $\mathbf{x}_k = (a^2/\rho_s, \theta_s, \phi_s)$, and their mirror image locations with respect to the plane z = 0 are $\mathbf{x}_{\overline{s}} = (\rho_s, \pi - 1)$

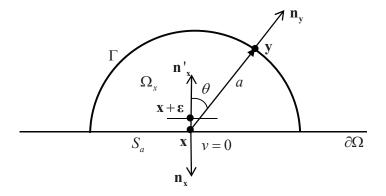


Fig. 3.1. Last-passage for finding the Neumann data at one point

 $\theta_{\rm s}, \phi_{\rm s}), \mathbf{x}_{\overline{\mathbf{k}}} = (a^2/\rho_{\rm s}, \pi - \theta_{\rm s}, \phi_{\rm s}),$ respectively. Meanwhile, the corresponding charges are $q_{\rm k} = -a/\rho_{\rm s},$ $q_{\overline{\rm s}} = -1,$ and $q_{\overline{\mathbf{k}}} = a/\rho_{\rm s},$ respectively.

Now, to get the charge distribution σ_s (normal derivative), we use the relation in (2.1), and we have

$$\sigma_s = -\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \mathbf{n}_{x+\varepsilon} \cdot \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{\partial u(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon)}{\partial \mathbf{n}_r} = \frac{\partial u(\mathbf{x})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_r}, \tag{3.6}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial u(\mathbf{x})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_r} = \int_{\Gamma} h(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon, \mathbf{y}) p_{y\infty} ds_y \equiv \Sigma_{\text{LP}}, \tag{3.7}$$

where the shorthand Σ_{LP} is introduced for the integral over Γ for latter use, and

$$h(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \mathbf{n}_x \partial \mathbf{n}_y} g(\mathbf{x} + \varepsilon, \mathbf{y}). \tag{3.8}$$

The weight function $h(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ can be analytically computed for the hemisphere

$$h(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{3}{2\pi} \frac{\cos \theta}{a^3},\tag{3.9}$$

where θ is the angle between the two normal vectors \mathbf{n}'_x and \mathbf{n}_y on the boundary Γ as shown in Fig. 3.1.

Next, we only need to compute $p_{y\infty}$ which is the probability of a Brownian particle starting from $\mathbf{y} \in \Gamma$ and diffusing to infinity without ever returning to the conductor surface $\partial\Omega$. Due to the homogeneity of the Brownian motion in the external domain $\Omega^c = \{z > 0\}$, the WOS in Section 2 can be used to calculate this probability. The integral in (3.7) over Γ could be approximated by a Gauss quadrature as both $h(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ and $p_{y\infty}$ can be considered as smooth functions of $\mathbf{y} \in \Gamma$. Nonetheless, in [14], the integral Σ_{LP} is computed by first

distributing N particles at locations over Γ based on a distribution density derived from (3.9), and then starting a Brownian diffusion path from each of those locations. The number of paths along which the particles will diffuse to infinity (in practice, when it hits a very large ball) is recorded as $N_{\rm inf}$. Then, we have the following estimate

$$\Sigma_{\rm LP} \simeq \frac{3}{2a} \frac{N_{\rm inf}}{N}.\tag{3.10}$$

The key equation in the last–passage algorithm is (3.7), which is based on (3.3) provided that the potential solution $v(\mathbf{x}) = 0, \mathbf{x} \in S_a$ on the conductor surface as indicated in (3.2). Therefore, for general non-constant Dirichlet boundary data, the last–passage method will not be applicable. In fact, the charge density at \mathbf{x} will be influenced by the potential value on all domain boundaries.

3.2. BIE-WOS Method: Combining a BIE and the Monte Carlo WOS method. For the last-passage method discussed above, the algorithm (3.7) is obtained by the isomorphism between the electrostatic potential and diffusion problems. The limitation of the last-passage method is that it is only applicable to the situation of constant Dirichlet data and a flat boundary. In this section, we will adopt a different approach based on a boundary integral equation (BIE) representation of the charge density (the Neumann data) on the surface at a given point using potential over a small hemisphere; the latter can then be computed by the random WOS method. As a result, this new approach, a hybrid method of deterministic and random approaches, will be able to handle general variable Dirichlet boundary data, and later in Section 4 is also extended to curved boundaries.

Let us denote by Ω_x the domain formed by the hemisphere of radius a centered at \mathbf{x} over the flat boundary S_a as in Fig. 3.1. By applying the integral representation (2.3) of the Laplace equation with the afore mentioned Green's function $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ in (3.5) for the domain Ω_x with a homogeneous Dirichlet boundary condition, due to the zero boundary value of Green's function $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$, we have

$$u(\mathbf{x}') = -\int_{\Gamma \cup S_a} \frac{\partial g(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{y}}} u(\mathbf{y}) ds, \quad \mathbf{x}' \in \Omega_x,$$
 (3.11)

where Γ again is the surface of the upper hemisphere and S_a is the disk of radius a centered at \mathbf{x} . In order to obtain the normal derivative of u at \mathbf{x} , we simply take the derivative with respect to \mathbf{x}' along the direction $\mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{x}}$ as \mathbf{x}' approaches \mathbf{x} and obtain the following representation involving a hyper-singular kernel,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{x}}} u(\mathbf{x}) = -\lim_{\mathbf{x}' \to \mathbf{x}} \int_{\Gamma \cup S_a} \frac{\partial^2 g(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{x}} \partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{y}}} u(\mathbf{y}) ds, \quad \mathbf{x} \in S_a.$$
 (3.12)

The integral expression for $\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{n_x}} u(\mathbf{x})$ involves two integrals, one regular integral over the upper hemisphere Γ denoted as

$$\Sigma_1 = -\int_{\Gamma} \frac{\partial^2 g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_x} \partial \mathbf{n_y}} u(\mathbf{y}) ds_y = -\int_{\Gamma} \left(\frac{3}{2\pi} \frac{\cos \theta}{a^3} \right) u(\mathbf{y}) ds_y, \tag{3.13}$$

where (3.9) has been used in the second equality, and another hyper-singular integral over the disk S_a denoted as

$$\Sigma_2 = -\lim_{\mathbf{x}' \to \mathbf{x}} \int_{S_a} \frac{\partial^2 g(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{x}} \partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{y}}} u(\mathbf{y}) ds_y, \tag{3.14}$$

and we have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{x}}} u(\mathbf{x}) = \Sigma_1 + \Sigma_2. \tag{3.15}$$

Equation (3.15) will be the starting point for the proposed hybrid method. In computing the integral Σ_1 , say by a Gauss quadrature over the hemisphere surface, we will need the potential solution $u(\mathbf{y})$ for $\mathbf{y} \in \Gamma$ and this solution will be readily computed with the Feynman-Kac formula (2.9) with the WOS as the sampling technique for the Brownian paths. On the other hand, the singular integral Σ_2 , with appropriate treatment of the hyper-singularities to be described in detail in the numerical test section, can be calculated directly with the given Dirichlet boundary data $u(\mathbf{y}), \mathbf{y} \in S_a$. Therefore, an algorithm using (3.12) involves the hybridization of a random walk on spheres (WOS) and a deterministic boundary integral equation (BIE), which is termed the BIE-WOS method.

Remark: In comparing the last-passage method (3.7) with the BIE-WOS method (3.15), the former uses the relation between the Brownian motion of diffusive particles and electric potential from charges on a conducting surface to arrive at an expression for the surface charge density based on (3.7). On the other hand, the BIE-WOS method uses a hyper-singular boundary integral equation to get a similar expression in (3.15), which has an additional contribution from the variable potential on the charged surface (the integral term Σ_2). Both methods use WOS for particles starting on the hemisphere, but, at different locations. The last-passage method proposed in [14] initiates particles' walk starting from positions all over the hemisphere sampled using a probability given by (3.9), while the BIE-WOS method initiates many particle walks starting from selected Gauss quadrature points (up to 30×30 in our test problems). Numerical results will show that for problems suitable for both methods, the total number of particle walk paths and the accuracy and computational costs are comparable (refer to Test 4 in Section 5.1.3).

4. Finding Neumann data over a patch of general boundary. In this section, we will extend the BIE-WOS method to the case of general Dirichlet boundary data and curved domain boundaries. To achieve this goal, we will superimpose a hemisphere over any selected portion of the boundary $\partial\Omega$ and

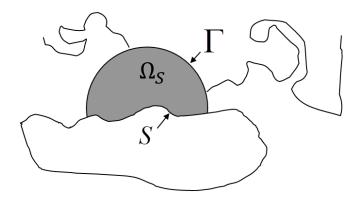


Fig. 4.1. Setup of the BIE-WOS method for finding the Neumann data on a patch $S \subset \partial \Omega$.

denote the intersection portion of the domain boundary by S and the surface of the hemisphere outside the domain Ω still by Γ , and the region bounded by S and Γ is denoted as Ω_S (see Fig. 4.1). Now let $G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ be Green's function of a whole sphere with a homogeneous boundary condition, which can be easily obtained by one Kelvin image charge as discussed before. Then, the integral representation (2.3) can be applied to the boundary of the domain Ω_S to yield the following identity

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = -\int_{\Gamma} \frac{\partial G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{y}}} u(\mathbf{y}) ds_{y} + \int_{S} \left[-\frac{\partial G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{y}}} u(\mathbf{y}) + G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \frac{\partial u(\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{y}}} \right] ds_{y}, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \Omega_{S}.$$
(4.1)

It should be noted that the integral over Γ only involves the normal derivative of Green's function as G vanishes on Γ by construction. As a result, only solution $u(\mathbf{y})$ is needed on Γ while both $u(\mathbf{y})$ and the normal derivative $\frac{\partial u(\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}}$ appear in the integral over S. As before, the solution $u(\mathbf{y})$ over Γ will be computed with the Feynman-Kac formula (2.9) with WOS and then the Neumann data over S can be solved from the following integral equation,

$$K\left[\frac{\partial u}{\partial \mathbf{n}}\right](\mathbf{x}) = b(\mathbf{x}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in S,$$
 (4.2)

where

$$K\left[\frac{\partial u}{\partial \mathbf{n}}\right] \equiv \int_{S} G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \frac{\partial u(\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_y}} ds_y, \tag{4.3}$$

and

$$b(\mathbf{x}) \equiv \left(\frac{u(\mathbf{x})}{2} + \text{p.v.} \int_{S} \frac{\partial G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_y}} u(\mathbf{y}) ds_y\right) + \int_{\Gamma} \frac{\partial G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_y}} u(\mathbf{y}) ds_y, \quad (4.4)$$

where p.v. stands for the Cauchy principal value of the double layer potential [5].

The integral equation (4.2) is of the first kind which is ill-conditioned and may cause numerical difficulties especially when the algebraic system from discretization becomes large. When that happens, a well-conditioned second kind of integral equation can be obtained by taking normal derivative of (4.1), resulting in the following identity

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{n_x}} u(\mathbf{x}) = -\int_{\Gamma} \frac{\partial^2 G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_x} \partial \mathbf{n_y}} u(\mathbf{y}) ds_y
+ \int_{S} \left[-\frac{\partial^2 G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_x} \partial \mathbf{n_y}} u(\mathbf{y}) + \frac{\partial G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_x}} \frac{\partial u(\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_y}} \right] ds_y, \quad \mathbf{x} \in \Omega_S. \quad (4.5)$$

Let \mathbf{x} approach the boundary S. We obtain the following second kind integral equation

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}I - D\right) \left[\frac{\partial u}{\partial \mathbf{n}}\right](\mathbf{x}) = b(\mathbf{x}), \quad \mathbf{x} \in S, \tag{4.6}$$

where the integral operator of a double layer potential is

$$D\left[\frac{\partial u}{\partial \mathbf{n}}\right](\mathbf{x}) \equiv \int_{S} \frac{\partial G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{x}}} \frac{\partial u(\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{y}}} ds_{y}, \tag{4.7}$$

and

$$b(\mathbf{x}) \equiv -\int_{\Gamma} \frac{\partial^2 G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_x} \partial \mathbf{n_y}} u(\mathbf{y}) ds_y - \text{p.f.} \int_{S} \frac{\partial^2 G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_x} \partial \mathbf{n_y}} u(\mathbf{y}) ds_y, \quad \mathbf{x} \in S, \quad (4.8)$$

and p.f. denotes the Hadamard finite part limit for the hyper-singular integral [5], which can be handled by a regularization technique.

BIE-WOS Algorithm: The BIE-WOS method for the Neumann data over a patch S will consist of two steps:

- Step 1: Apply the Feynman-Kac formula (2.9) with the WOS sampling technique to compute the potential solution $u(\mathbf{y}_{i,j})$ at Gauss points $\mathbf{y}_{i,j} \in \Gamma$. Compute the right-hand-side function $b(\mathbf{x})$ in (4.4) or (4.8) by some Gauss quadratures.
- Step 2: Solve the BIE (4.2) or (4.6) with a collocation method for the Neumann data $\frac{\partial u}{\partial \mathbf{n}}$ over S.

Remark: To find the derivatives of the potential inside and outside a bounded domain Ω , the BIE-WOS method is applied separately. Namely, the hemisphere Ω_s in Fig. 4.1 will be located in the interior and exterior of Ω (wherein

the WOS method will be used), respectively. Once the Neumann data for the respective potential is found by the BIE-WOS method, the integral representation (2.3) can be used with the corresponding Green's function to obtain the potential in the whole interior and exterior space.

5. Numerical Results. In this section, we will present a series of numerical tests to demonstrate the accuracy and efficiency of the proposed BIE-WOS method for finding the Neumann data at a single point on a flat boundary or on a patch over a curved boundary.

5.1. Finding Neumann data at one point on a flat boundary.

5.1.1. Regularization of hyper-singular integrals. First, let us present a regularization method using simple solution of the Laplace equation [12] to compute the hyper-singular integral in (3.14) and (4.8). First, with some simple calculations, the term Σ_2 of (3.14) is found to be a Hadamard finite part limit of the following hyper-singular integral:

$$\Sigma_2 = -\lim_{\mathbf{x}' \to \mathbf{x}} \int_{S_a} \frac{\partial^2 g(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{x}} \partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{y}}} u(\mathbf{y}) ds_y = -\text{p.f.} \int_{S_a} \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{\rho^3} - \frac{1}{a^3} \right) u(\mathbf{y}) ds_y, \quad (5.1)$$

where $\rho = |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S_a$. The finite part (p.f.) limit of Hadamard type is defined by removing a divergent part in the process of defining a principal value (i.e. by removing a small patch of size ε centered at \mathbf{x} and then let ε approach zero) [5]. For the Laplace equation considered here, we can regularize this hyper-singularity by invoking an integral identity for the special solution $u \equiv \phi(\mathbf{x})$, with \mathbf{x} being fixed, namely, the integral identity (3.12) applied to this constant solution results in

$$0 = -\int_{\Gamma} \frac{\partial^2 g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{x}} \partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{y}}} \phi(\mathbf{x}) ds - \lim_{\mathbf{x}' \to \mathbf{x}} \int_{S_a} \frac{\partial^2 g(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{x}} \partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{y}}} \phi(\mathbf{x}) ds, \quad \mathbf{x} \in S.$$
 (5.2)

Subtracting (5.2) from (3.15), we have a modified formula for the Neumann data as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{n_x}} u(\mathbf{x}) = \Sigma_1' + \Sigma_2', \quad \mathbf{x} \in S, \tag{5.3}$$

where Σ'_1 and Σ'_2 are now regularized versions of Σ_1 and Σ_2 in (3.13) and (3.14), respectively, i.e.,

$$\Sigma_1' = -\int_{\Gamma} \frac{\partial^2 g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n_x} \partial \mathbf{n_y}} \left(u(\mathbf{y}) - \phi(\mathbf{x}) \right) ds_y, \tag{5.4}$$

and

$$\Sigma_{2}' = -\lim_{\mathbf{x}' \to \mathbf{x}} \int_{S_{a}} \frac{\partial^{2} g(\mathbf{x}', \mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{x}} \partial \mathbf{n}_{\mathbf{y}}} \left(u(\mathbf{y}) - \phi(\mathbf{x}) \right) ds_{y}$$

$$= -\lim_{\mathbf{x}' \to \mathbf{x}} \int_{S_{a}} \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{r^{3}} - \frac{1}{a^{3}} \right) \left(\phi(\mathbf{y}) - \phi(\mathbf{x}) \right) ds_{y}, \tag{5.5}$$

where $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{x} + (0, 0, \varepsilon)$, $r = \sqrt{\rho^2 + \varepsilon^2}$, $\boldsymbol{\rho} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}$, $\rho = |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|$, $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S_a$. Moreover, the boundary condition $u(\mathbf{y}) = \phi(\mathbf{y})$, $\mathbf{y} \in S_a$ has been invoked in (5.5).

Compared with (5.1), the singularity in the integral Σ'_2 in (5.5) has been weakened by the factor $(\phi(\mathbf{y}) - \phi(\mathbf{x}))$, which vanishes at \mathbf{x} , and Σ'_2 will be evaluated by a Gauss quadrature. Let us only consider the integral involving the singular term $\frac{1}{r^3}$ in (5.5), which is denoted by Σ^*_2 , i.e.,

$$\Sigma_2^* = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \lim_{\mathbf{x}' \to \mathbf{x}} \int_{S_a} \frac{1}{r^3} \left(\phi(\mathbf{y}) - \phi(\mathbf{x}) \right) ds_y.$$
 (5.6)

Consider a circular patch Λ_{δ} of radius δ centered at \mathbf{x} , and then Σ_2^* can be split further into two integrals as follows

$$\Sigma_{2}^{*} = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{S_{a} \setminus \Lambda_{\delta}} \frac{1}{\rho^{3}} (\phi(\mathbf{y}) - \phi(\mathbf{x})) ds_{y}$$

$$-\frac{1}{2\pi} \lim_{\mathbf{x}' \to \mathbf{x}} \int_{\Lambda_{\delta}} \frac{1}{r^{3}} (\phi(\mathbf{y}) - \phi(\mathbf{x})) ds_{y}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{S_{a} \setminus \Lambda_{\delta}} \frac{1}{\rho^{3}} (\phi(\mathbf{y}) - \phi(\mathbf{x})) ds_{y} + \Delta.$$
(5.7)

To estimate the term Δ , we apply a Taylor expansion of the boundary data $\phi(\mathbf{y})$ at \mathbf{x}

$$\phi(\mathbf{y}) - \phi(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla \phi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \boldsymbol{\rho} + O(\rho^2). \tag{5.8}$$

Then, we obtain

$$\Delta = -\frac{\nabla \phi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \lim_{\mathbf{x}' \to \mathbf{x}} \int_{\Lambda_{\delta}} \frac{\rho}{r^{3}} ds_{y} + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\Lambda_{\delta}} \frac{O(\rho^{2})}{r^{3}} ds_{y}$$

$$= -\frac{\nabla \phi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \lim_{\mathbf{x}' \to \mathbf{x}} \int_{0}^{\delta} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{\rho(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)}{(\rho^{2} + \varepsilon^{2})^{3/2}} \rho d\theta d\rho$$

$$+ \lim_{\mathbf{x}' \to \mathbf{x}} \int_{0}^{\delta} \frac{O(\rho^{2})}{(\rho^{2} + \varepsilon^{2})^{3/2}} \rho d\rho$$

$$= 0 + \lim_{\mathbf{x}' \to \mathbf{x}} \int_{0}^{\delta} \frac{O(\rho^{3})}{(\rho^{2} + \varepsilon^{2})^{3/2}} d\rho.$$
(5.9)

Now for all positive $\varepsilon > 0$, we have

$$\frac{\rho^3}{(\rho^2 + \varepsilon^2)^{3/2}} \le 1. \tag{5.10}$$

As a result, the following estimate of the term Δ holds

$$\Delta = O(\delta). \tag{5.11}$$

Finally, the regularized integral Σ_2^* will be approximated by the integral over $S_a \setminus \Lambda_\delta$ with an accuracy of $O(\delta)$ and a Gauss quadrature formula over the ring shaped region $S_a \setminus \Lambda_\delta$:

$$\Sigma_2^* = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{S_a \setminus \Lambda_\delta} \frac{1}{\rho^3} \left(\phi(\mathbf{y}) - \phi(\mathbf{x}) \right) ds_y + O(\delta). \tag{5.12}$$

5.1.2. Gauss quadratures over the hemisphere Γ and $S_a \setminus \Lambda_\delta$ and WOS. To compute the integral Σ'_1 , we use $N_{g1} \times N_{g1}$ Gauss points over the hemispherical surface Γ

$$\Sigma_1' \simeq -\sum_{i,j=1}^{N_{g1}} \omega_i \omega_j \frac{\pi^2}{4} (a^2 \sin \theta_i) \frac{3}{2a} \left(\frac{\cos \theta_i}{\pi a^2} \right) (u(\mathbf{y}_{i,j}) - \phi(\mathbf{x})), \qquad (5.13)$$

where

$$\theta_i = \frac{\pi}{4}(\xi_i + 1), \varphi_j = \pi(\xi_j + 1), \mathbf{y}_{i,j} = (a, \theta_i, \varphi_j),$$
 (5.14)

and ω_i and ξ_i , $1 \leq i \leq N_{g1}$ are the Gauss quadrature weights and locations, respectively. $\frac{\pi^2}{4}(a^2\sin\theta_i)$ is the area of the surface element in the spherical coordinates.

Now, each of the solution values $u(\mathbf{y}_{i,j})$, $\mathbf{y}_{i,j} \in \Gamma$ will be obtained by the Feynman-Kac formula (2.9) with N_{path} Brownian particles all starting from $\mathbf{y}_{i,j}$, namely

$$u(\mathbf{y}_{i,j}) \simeq \frac{1}{N_{path}} \sum_{k=1}^{N_{path}} \phi(\mathbf{e}_k),$$
 (5.15)

where \mathbf{e}_k is the location on $\partial\Omega$ where a path terminates.

The total number $N_{\text{path-bie-wos}}$ of Brownian particles needed in the BIE-WOS method will be

$$N_{\text{path-bie-wos}} = N_{g1} \times N_{g1} \times N_{path}. \tag{5.16}$$

Next, the integral Σ_2^* in (5.12) will be computed with another $N_{g2} \times N_{g2}$ Gauss quadrature over the ring shaped region $S_a \setminus \Lambda_{\delta}$ with an error of $O(\delta)$ in addition to the error from the Gauss quadrature.

5.1.3. Numerical tests. In this section, we will present several numerical tests to demonstrate the accuracy and efficiency of the proposed BIE-WOS method for finding the Neumann data at a given point over a flat boundary for general Dirichlet boundary data. For comparison, we also implement the last-passage Monte Carlo method proposed in [14]. For accuracy comparison, the charge density is calculated with the FastCap, an open-source code developed in MIT [25] for 3-D capacitance extraction tool in industry and academia. The Fastcap is an indirect BEM, accelerated by the fast multipole method (FMM), and its linear system is solved by a conjugate gradient method. For the case of complex potentials on the surfaces, we also implemented a direct

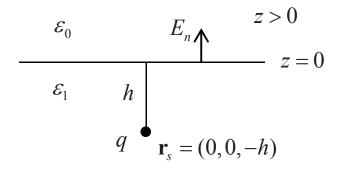


Fig. 5.1. Potential above a half-space

BEM (DBEM) [33]. To identify Brownian particles going to infinity, a large sphere of radius of 10^5 is used, which is found to be large enough for the desired accuracy. Thus, once a particle gets out this sphere, it will be considered as having gone to infinity.

• Test 1- Charge densities on a planar interface between two dielectric half spaces

As shown in Fig. 5.1, the whole space is divided by a planar interface between two dielectric domains, and the dielectric constants are ϵ_0 and ϵ_1 in the upper and lower domain, respectively. A charge q is located at $\mathbf{r}_s = (0, 0, -h)$. Then the potential in the upper space is given by

$$u(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{q'}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_s|}, \quad q' = \frac{2\epsilon_0}{\epsilon_0 + \epsilon_1} q,$$
 (5.17)

and $u(\mathbf{r})$ satisfies the Laplace equation $\nabla^2 u(\mathbf{r}) = 0, z > 0$ with a variable Dirichlet data on the boundary z = 0.

The charge density at the point $\mathbf{x} = (0.5, 0, 0)$ by the last-passage method and the BIE-WOS method with various radius a of the hemisphere are listed in Table 5.1. In the last-passage method, the total number of the sampling paths is $N = 4 \times 10^5$. In the BIE-WOS method, the number of Gauss points is $N_{g1} \times N_{g1} = 20 \times 20$ for the hemisphere, and is $N_{g2} \times N_{g2} = 20 \times 20$ for the integral on the 2-D disk S_a . Starting from each Gauss point on the hemisphere, the number of the sampling paths is $N_{path} = 10^3$. Therefore, the total number of paths for the BIE-WOS method is also 4×10^5 . In both methods, the thickness ε of the absorption layer for the WOS method is taken to be 10^{-5} .

From Table 5.1, we can see that when the radius increases, the relative error of the last-passage method grows and grows even up to -25.27%. It shows that when the potential Dirichlet data on the disk S_a is not constant,

Table 5.1
Charge density on the planar interface with different radius

	Last-passage			BIE-WOS		analytical	
a	$\Sigma_{ m LP}$	err%	Σ_1'	$\Sigma_2^{'}$	$\Sigma_1' + \Sigma_2'$	err%	solution
0.1	0.698543	-2.38	0.69884	0.018777	0.717612	0.29	
0.2	0.677996	-5.25	0.67784	0.037515	0.715355	-0.03	
0.5	0.622949	-12.94	0.62146	0.093054	0.714517	-0.14	0.71554
0.7	0.586721	-18.00	0.58432	0.128971	0.713287	-0.32	
1.0	0.534695	-25.27	0.53659	0.179973	0.716562	0.14	

Table 5.2

Accuracy of the de-singularization in (4.12)

δ/a	Σ_2' calculated by $N_{g2} \times N_{g2}$ Gauss Quadrature								
	4×4	err%	6×6	$\mathrm{err}\%$	10×10	$\mathrm{err}\%$	20×20	$\mathrm{err}\%$	
10^{-1}	0.09659	3.800	0.08983	-3.462	0.08949	-3.833	0.08949	-3.8351	
10^{-2}	0.10042	7.916	0.09306	0.001	0.09273	-0.347	0.09273	-0.3492	
10^{-3}	0.10083	8.352	0.09335	0.314	0.09302	-0.033	0.09302	-0.0346	
10^{-4}	0.10087	8.397	0.09337	0.345	0.09305	-0.002	0.09305	-0.0035	
10^{-5}	0.10087	8.402	0.09338	0.348	0.09306	0.001	0.09305	-0.0003	
10^{-6}	0.10087	8.402	0.09338	0.348	0.09306	0.001	0.09305		

the last-passage method is not applicable. The variable potential inside the disk S_a will influence the charge density at \mathbf{x} . In contrast, the BIE-WOS method includes such influences as shown in the results, and most importantly, is independent of the radius a, for its maximal relative error is less than 0.32% when the radius ranges from 0.1 to 1.0.

Table 5.2 lists the accuracy of the de-singularized Σ_2' in (5.12) with different values δ and numbers of Gauss points $N_{g2} \times N_{g2}$, where the location of the sought-after density is at (0.5,0,0). The result of $N_{g2} \times N_{g2} = 20 \times 20$ with $\delta/a = 10^{-6}$ is taken as the reference value for Σ_2' . Table 5.2 shows the convergence speed of Σ_2' as δ/a goes to zero and the number of the Gauss points increases. It can be seen that when the number of the Gauss points is large enough, for example 20×20 , the relative error is on the order of δ/a , verifying the estimate in (5.12).

• Test 2: Four rectangular plates with a piecewise constant potential distribution

A 3-D structure with four rectangular plates is depicted in Fig. 5.2, where the length, width and thickness of all four plates are $1m\times1m\times0.01m$. First, we set the potential of plate II to 1V and the potential of the other three (I, III and IV) to 0V, and compute the charge density at the point A(-0.2273, 0.2273).

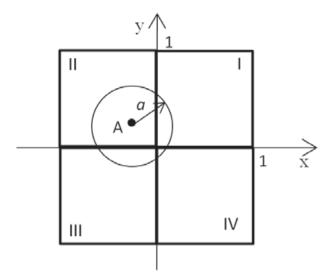


Fig. 5.2. Four plates at different potentials

The results of all four methods are listed in Table 5.3, taking the results by the FastCap as the reference where each side of the plates is discretized into 99×99 panels. The DBEM uses a discretization with 11×11 panels on each side, and its relative error is -0.46%.

Both the last-passage method and the BIE-WOS method run with various radius a of the hemisphere, and the parameters are the same as in Test 1. In this case, the integral Σ'_2 is related to the area of the intersecting area between the disk S_a and the plates I, III and IV, and we just compute it directly by the quad function in Matlab, instead of Gauss quadratures.

Note that the potential on the boundary $\partial\Omega$ here is piecewise constant. Therefore, in the last-passage method, charge density should be computed, instead of by (3.10), by the following formula:

$$\Sigma_{\rm LP} = \frac{3}{2a} \frac{N_{\rm inf} + N_I + N_{III} + N_{IV}}{N_{\rm path-LP}},$$
 (5.18)

where $N_{\rm inf}, N_I, N_{III}$, and N_{IV} represent the number of particles which finally go to infinity, plate I, III, and IV, respectively. $N_{\rm path-LP}$ denotes the total number of Brownian paths starting from the hemisphere Γ .

From Table 5.3, we can see that when the radius $a \leq 0.2773$, i.e. the disk S_a is totally inside the plate II, the last-passage method is correct with a maximal relative error less than 0.17%. However, once S_a becomes larger and covers areas of plates with different potentials, the relative error of the last-passage method increases, even up to -39.48%. In comparison, the BIE-WOS method maintains its accuracy insensitive to the radius a with a maximal relative errors

Table 5.3
Charge density of a structure of four unit plates with different radius

a	Last-pa	ssage	В			DBEM	DBEM	
	$\Sigma_{ m LP}$	err%	$\Sigma_1^{'}$	$\Sigma_2^{'}$	$\Sigma_1' + \Sigma_2'$	err%	value	err%
0.1	2.6084	0.05	2.6051	0	2.6051	-0.07		
0.2	2.6026	-0.17	2.6051	0	2.6051	-0.07	2.595	-0.46
0.2273	2.6099	0.11	2.6064	0	2.6064	-0.02		
0.3	2.5252	-3.14	2.5178	0.0892	2.6070	-0.00	Fastcap	
0.5	1.9698	-24.44	1.9692	0.6330	2.6022	-0.19		
0.7	1.5779	-39.48	1.5784	1.0271	2.6055	-0.06	2.607	

less than -0.19% as the radius varies from 0.1 to 0.7. This again confirms the fact that the last-passage method of [14] is designed for conducting surfaces (i.e., constant potential), not for surfaces of variable potentials. Therefore, it should not be used when the disk S_a includes regions of different potentials.

In conclusion, for a general variable potential, the last-passage method is limited while the BIE-WOS method does not suffer from the constraint of a constant boundary potential.

• Test 3: Four rectangular plates with a complex potential distribution

To further emphasize the point raised above in Test 2, we set the four plates with a complex potential distribution as:

$$\phi(x,y) = \sin mx \sin ny. \tag{5.19}$$

To obtain an accurate result, the last-passage method will require increasingly smaller radius a for ever larger m and n to achieve an (approximately) constant potential within the disk S_a .

The charge density at the point (-0.5, 0.5) by the last-passage method, the BIE-WOS method and the DBEM are shown in Table 5.4. We take the result of the DBEM with 17×17 panels on each plate as the reference solution. All other parameters in the BIE-WOS and last-passage methods are same as in the previous case. From Table 5.4, we can see that the BIE-WOS method is more accurate.

The relative errors versus the number of Gauss points and the WOS paths are shown in Fig. 5.3. The BIE-WOS result of $N_{g1} \times N_{g1} = 20 \times 20$, $N_{g2} \times N_{g2} = 10 \times 10$, $N_{path} = 2 \times 10^3$ and a = 0.5 is taken as the reference solution. From Fig. 5.3, we can see that when the number of the Brownian paths N_{path} is larger than 10^3 at each Gauss point, the BIE-WOS result with 10×10 Gauss points will achieve an accuracy about 1% in the relative error.

• Test 4: CPU time comparison with the last-passage method

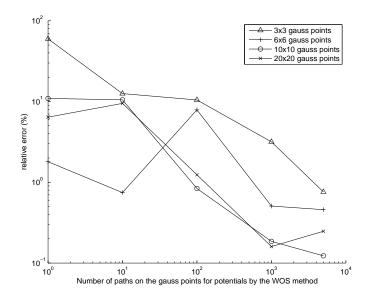


Fig. 5.3. Convergence of the BIE-WOS method vs the number of Brownian paths and Gauss points

 ${\it Table 5.4}$ Charge density of a structure of four unit plates with complex voltages in different radius

a	Last-passage			DBEM			
	$\Sigma_{ m LP}$	$\mathrm{err}\%$	$\Sigma_1^{'}$	Σ_2^{\prime}	$\Sigma_1' + \Sigma_2'$	err%	value
0.1	-0.4522	3.92	-0.4454	-0.008617	-0.4540	3.54	
0.2	-0.4442	5.62	-0.4444	-0.01722	-0.4616	1.93	
0.3	-0.4369	7.17	-0.4362	-0.02579	-0.4620	1.85	-0.4707
0.4	-0.4288	8.90	-0.4278	-0.03433	-0.4621	1.82	
0.5	-0.4203	10.7	-0.4202	-0.04280	-0.4630	1.62	

For both the last-passage and BIE-WOS methods, the CPU time is expected to be linear in terms of the total number of random paths. We demonstrate this fact with a case of a thin circular disk with radius b in 3-D space [14] as shown in Fig. 5.4. From [13], the analytical result of the charge density on the disk is:

$$\sigma(\rho) = \frac{Q}{4\pi b \sqrt{b^2 - \rho^2}}, \quad Q = 8b.$$
 (5.20)

For a given relative error tolerance on the charge density at (-0.5, 0, 0), the CPU time comparison of both methods versus the number of random paths are listed in Table 5.5. We take the radius a = 0.4 for $S_a, b = 1$ for the radius of the thin disk, and the analytical charge density is $\sigma(0.5) = 0.735105$. From Table 5.5, we can see that the CPU times are indeed in proportion to the total

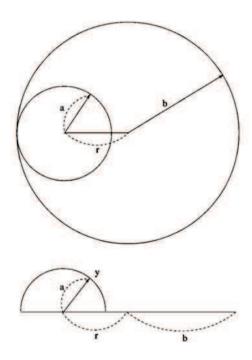


Fig. 5.4. Finding the charge distribution over a disk in 3-D

Table 5.5

The relative errors and the cpu times comparison according to the number n of random paths

Last-passage (LP)				BIE-WOS				
$N_{\text{path-LP}}$	$T_{ m path-LP}$ $\Sigma_{ m LP}$ err $\%$ cpu		$N_{\mathrm{path-bie-wos}} \qquad \qquad \Sigma_1' + \Sigma_2'$		err%	cpu		
			time(s)	-			time(s)	
10^{4}	0.69975	-4.81	32	$10^2 \cdot 100 = 10^4$	0.68888	-6.29	30	
10^{5}	0.73253	-0.35	331	$10^2 \cdot 1000 = 10^5$	0.73960	0.61	307	
$4 \cdot 10^5$	0.73743	0.32	1325	$20^2 \cdot 1000 = 4 \cdot 10^5$	0.73441	-0.09	1218	

number of random paths for both methods for a comparable accuracy. Though the integral Σ_2' of the BIE-WOS method in this case is obviously zero, we still evaluate it just as for a general variable potential and the CPU times of Σ_2' is included in the CPU times of the BIE-WOS method in Table 5.5. It is noted that the CPU times in computing the integral Σ_2' for all cases are insignificant at about 0.012 second for a 20×20 Gauss quadrature.

5.2. Finding Neumann data over a patch of a curved boundary.

Next, to test the BIE-WOS method for a curved boundary, we compute the DtN mapping on a big sphere as shown in Fig. 5.5 (left) with a radius R=3. A point charge q=1 is located at the central point O and the analytical result for the potential is then known. To compute the Neumann data over a local

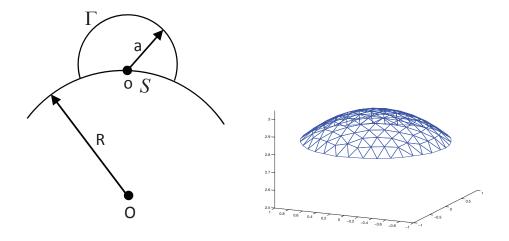
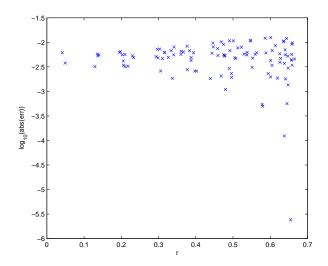


Fig. 5.5. Left: BIE-WOS setting for finding the Neumann data over a patch of a big sphere; right: the mesh over the patch

patch S around the point $\mathbf{o} = (0,0,3)$ on the big spherical surface, a small sphere with a radius a = 1 is superimposed over the point \mathbf{o} . The local patch S is discretized with a triangular mesh as shown in Fig. 5.5.

The BIE equation of (4.2) is solved by a collocation boundary element method. When a collocation point is not inside an integration panel of the BEM, a simple Gauss quadrature method is used. For collocation points inside an integration panel, both weak and strong singularities will occur; however, they can be regularized by a local polar transformation technique and a 20×20 Gauss quadrature will then be used. For the integrals on Γ , a 30×30 Gauss quadrature will be used. The potential $u(\mathbf{y})$ on Γ is first computed, by the Feynman-Kac formula and the WOS method with 10^4 Brownian paths, on a regular grid, which is generated by evenly discretizing the spherical surface along the polar and azimuthal angles. The value $u(\mathbf{y})$ on Γ but not on the grid points as required by numerical quadratures will be interpolated using the values on the grid points.

The relative errors at the center of triangular panels on S are shown in Fig. 5.6, where the x-axis means the distance between the center of the triangle to point \mathbf{o} . From Fig. 5.6, we can see that for the panels close to point \mathbf{o} , i.e. r < 0.7a, the maximal relative error is less than 1.25%, which will be accurate enough for most engineering applications. It is noted that due to the sharp corner edge singularity of the domain Ω_S where the hemisphere and $\partial\Omega$ intersect, the piecewis constant collocation BEM will lose some of its accuracy, which limits the region where acceptable accuracy of the BEM solution can be used for the sought-after Neumann data. This well-known problem in singular boundary elements usually is addressed with graded mesh near the edge singularity [6][1][18] and is still an active research topic in BEM



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FIG. 5.6. Accuracy of the Neuamann data by the BIE-WOS method over the patch S, r < 0.7a, where a is the radius of Γ .

methods [4]. A resolution of this edge singularity can increase the region of useful BEM solution in the BIE-WOS algorithm and can be incorporated into the algorithm. As discussed in the last section, as the boundary $\partial\Omega$ will be covered with an overlapping patch S_i , the loss of the accuracy of the BIE solution near the edge of each patch will not hinder the use of the BIE-WOS method. However, any improvement of the BEM near the edge will reduce the total number of patches to cover the boundary, thus reducing the total cost.

6. Conclusions and discussions. In this paper we have proposed a local BIE-WOS method which combines a local deterministic singular BIE method and the Monte Carlo WOS algorithm to find the Neumann data on general surfaces given Dirichlet data there. The singular integral equation for the Neumann data at any single point or a local patch on the boundary surface involves potential solution on a local hemisphere, which can be readily obtained with the Feynman-Kac formula with the help of the WOS sampling of the Brownian paths. Numerical results validate the efficiency and accuracy of this method.

The local BIE-WOS method of finding the DtN or NtD mapping can give a parallel algorithm for the solution of the Poisson equation with Dirichlet or Neumann boundary conditions. Firstly, we partition the whole boundary $\partial\Omega$ into a union of overlapping patches S_i namely,

$$\partial\Omega=\cup_i S_i$$
.

Then, the local BIE-WOS method can be used to find the DtN or NtD mapping over each patch S_i independently in parallel. In principle, the computation of the BIE-WOS method over each patch can be done over one processor without need for communications with others; thus a high parallel scalability can be achieved. Secondly, the solution to the Poisson equation in the whole space can be found with the integral representation of (2.3) with the help of one application of FMM [15].

There are several important research issues to be addressed before the BIE-WOS method can be used for large scale computation of Poisson or modified Helmholtz equations. The first issue is (1) the NtD mapping problem, where the Neumann data is given on the boundary and the Dirichlet data is required. In this case, the Feynman-Kac formula derived in [16] can be used, which will involve reflecting Brownian paths [21] with respect to the domain boundary. Efficient numerical implementation will have to be developed; The second issue is the modified Helmholtz equation. Even though the Feynman-Kac formula (2.8) still applies, a survival factor will be introduced as the WOS samples the Brownian paths and efficient ways to use the Feynman-Kac formula will have to be addressed. The third issue is that since the WOS scheme requires the computation of the distance between a Brownian particle and the boundary of the solution domain, efficient algorithms will have to be be studied for the overall speed of the BIE-WOS method.

The parallel algorithm based on the BIE-WOS method for solving Poisson or modified Helmholtz equations will have the following important features:

- Non-iterative in construction and no need to solve any global linear system.
- Stochastic in nature based on the fundamental link between the Brownian motion and the solution of elliptic PDEs.
- Massive parallelism suitable to large number of processors for large scale computing due to the random walk and local integral equation components of the algorithm.
- No need for traditional finite element type surface or volume meshes.
- Applicable to complex 3-D geometry with highly accurate treatment of domain boundary geometries.

In comparison with traditional finite element and finite difference methods, the BIE-WOS solver is only suitable for Poisson and modified Helmholtz equations (due to the use of WOS-type sampling technique of the diffusion paths) and its accuracy is limited to that of the Monte Carlo sampling technique, while the traditional grid based methods can handle more general PDEs with variable coefficients and achieve high accuracy. Nonetheless, as the Poisson and modified Helmholtz equations form the bulk computation of projection-type methods for incompressible flows and other important scientific computing, the progress in scalability of parallel BIE-WOS based-solvers will have large impact on the simulation capability of incompressible flows and engineering applications.

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