BEM modeling of damping forces on MEMS with thin plates

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Abstract

An incompressible fluid Stokes flow model is often useful for the determination of damping forces on Micro-Electro-Mechanical (MEM) structures. Such structures in the shape of thin beams and plates are of primary interest in this work. Two difficulties arise with the standard Boundary Element Method (BEM) analysis of this problem. The first is that the usual Stokes kernel is singular; the second is numerical ill conditioning of the stiffness matrix owing to the plates being thin. A novel approach is proposed in this paper to take care of both these problems in a simple and effective manner. Sample numerical results for some simple illustrative problems are given in this paper.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Micro-electro-mechanical systems

The field of Micro-Electro-Mechanical Systems (MEMS) is a very broad one that includes fixed or moving microstructures, encompassing micro-electro-mechanical, microfluidic, micro-opto-electro-mechanical and micro-thermo-mechanical devices and systems. MEMS usually consists of released microstructures that are suspended and anchored, or captured by a hubcap structure and set into motion by mechanical, electrical, thermal, acoustical or photonic energy source(s).

Typical MEMS structures consist of arrays of thin beams and/or plates with cross-sections in the order of micrometers (μm) and lengths in the order of tens to hundreds of micrometers. Of interest in this work is silicon MEMS, where actuation or sensing is performed electrostatically by means of arrays of capacitors. Owing to the small size of the structural elements, significant forces and/or deformations can be obtained with the application of low voltages (∼10 V).

1.2. Numerical simulation of MEMS

Numerical simulation of electrically actuated MEMS devices have been carried out since the early 1990s by using the Boundary Element Method (BEM—see, for example, [1–5]) to model the exterior electric field and the Finite Element Method (FEM—see, e.g. [6–8]) to model deformation of the structure. The commercial software package MEMCAD [9], for example, uses the commercial FEM software package ABAQUS for mechanical analysis, together with a BEM code FASTCAP [10] for the electric field analysis. Other examples of such work are [11–13]; as well as [9,14] for dynamic analysis of MEMS. Optimal shape design of MEMS has been attempted, for example, in Refs. [15–17].

1.3. MEMS with thin plates

MEMS simulations usually require BEM analysis of the electric field exterior to very thin conducting plates. A convenient way to model such a problem is to assume plates with vanishing thickness and solve for the sum of the charges acting on the upper and lower surfaces of each plate [18]. The standard Boundary Integral Equation (BIE) with a weakly singular kernel is used here and this approach works well for determining, for example, the capacitance of a parallel plate capacitor. For MEMS calculations, however, one must obtain the charge densities separately on the upper and lower surfaces of a plate since the traction at a surface point on a plate depends on the square of the charge density at that point. The gradient
BIE has been very recently employed in [19] to obtain these charge densities separately. Careful regularization of the gradient equation, to take care of singular and nearly singular integrals that arise, has been carried out in this work. Related very recent work can be found in Ref. [20]. Here, the authors have employed the dual BEM (DBEM) (i.e. the standard as well as the derivative BEM) to solve electrostatics problems involving two-dimensional (2D) parallel plate capacitors.

1.4. Damping forces on MEMS

The dynamics of MEM structures, consisting of arrays of thin plates, depends on the electrostatic field and the flow of the viscous gas surrounding the structure. An extensive literature exists on the subject of damping forces in MEMS. The key issue, of course, is the choice of a particular mathematical model in order to calculate the damping forces correctly. Various options exist, such as a squeeze film model (e.g. [21]), an incompressible steady Stokes flow model (e.g. [22]), an incompressible oscillatory Stokes flow model (e.g. [23,24]), inclusion [24] or exclusion of slip at the solid/fluid interface, or molecular dynamics (MD) simulation (e.g. [25]).

The last option must be employed if continuum theory breaks down, as often happens at the nanoscale or due to extreme rarefaction of the surrounding air at very low pressures. Sometimes, even if continuum theory does apply, a quasi-steady Stokes model may not be able to handle very high resonant frequencies (around 100 MHz [26]).

MEMS plates and beams, however, are typically tens to hundreds of micrometers long and with thickness in the order of micrometers [27]. There exists a regime where due to the micrometer-scale involved, the Reynolds numbers of the surrounding flow are generally small enough, and natural frequencies low enough (in the range of 100 s of kiloHertz) to allow the use of a steady-state Stokes flow (sometimes called creeping flow) model. Moreover, if the MEMS operate at pressures where the air can be treated as a continuum, the usual operating frequencies very often require an incompressible fluid model [22]. Further, in synthetic microjet applications, the medium surrounding the plates is typically a liquid for which operating frequencies very often require an incompressible model is, of course, the appropriate one.

Problems in which an incompressible steady-state Stokes model applies are of interest in this work. It is important to point out that a recent numerical and experimental study of typical MEMS structures [23] demonstrates that a 3D, incompressible, no slip, oscillatory Stokes model can predict measured quality factors within 10%. Although only the steady Stokes model is employed in the present work, it is important to note that the forms of the integral equations used here remain unchanged for the oscillatory case, provided that the appropriate kernels for oscillatory flow are used in these integral equations [23,24].

Two difficulties arise with standard BEM analysis of this problem. The first is that the usual Stokes kernel is singular; the second is numerical ill-conditioning of the stiffness matrix owing to the plates being thin [22]. A novel approach is proposed here to take care of both these problems in a simple manner.

1.5. This Paper

Stokes flow for the general case is discussed first. This is followed by a discussion of Stokes flow around very thin plates. It is shown here how a Boundary Integral Equation (BIE) formulation in terms of the resultant traction overcomes problems associated with the standard BIE with the Stokes kernel. Regularized versions of the standard BIE for flow around thin flexible plates, and of the traction BIE for flow around thin rigid plates, are derived next. Some simple illustrative numerical examples involving thin flat rigid plates complete the paper.

2. Stokes flow—general case

The dynamics of MEM structures, consisting of arrays of thin plates, depends on the electrostatic field and the flow of the viscous gas surrounding the structure. Due to the micrometer-scale involved, the Reynolds numbers of the surrounding flow are generally small enough to allow for the use of a steady-state Stokes flow (sometimes called creeping flow) model.

The governing equations for Stokes flow are:

\[ \nabla p(x) - \mu \nabla^2 v(x) = 0, \quad x \in B \]  
\[ \nabla \cdot v(x) = 0, \quad x \in B \]  
\[ v(x) = g(x), \quad x \in \partial B \]

In the above, \( v \) is the velocity, \( p \) is the pressure and \( \mu \) is the dynamic viscosity of the fluid. Also, \( B \) is the region exterior to the structure and \( \partial B \) is its boundary.

The stress tensor \( \sigma \) inside the fluid, and the surface traction \( \tau \) on the solid surface, are defined by the equations

\[ \sigma(x) = -p(x)I + \mu[\nabla v(x) + \nabla^T v(x)], \quad x \in B \]

\[ \tau(x) = \sigma(x) \cdot n(x), \quad x \in \partial B \]

where \( n \) is the unit normal to \( \partial B \) pointing into the solid.

An integral equation governing Stokes flow can be written as [28,29]

\[ v_i(x) = \frac{g_i(x)}{\partial B} \int T_{ij}(x,y)v_j(y)\,ds(y) \]

\[ + \int G_{ij}(x,y)\tau_j(y)\,ds(y), \quad x \in \partial B \]
or its regularized version

$$v_i(x) = g_i(x) = \int_{\partial B} T_{ij}(x,y)[v_j(y) - v_j(x)]ds(y)$$

$$+ \int_{\partial B} G_{ij}(x,y)\tau_j(y)ds(y), \quad x \in \partial B$$

(7)

where the Green’s function $G$ is

$$G_{ij}(x,y) = \frac{1}{8\pi \mu} \left[ \delta_{ij} + r_ir_j \right]$$

(8)

and the traction kernel is

$$T_{ij}(x,y) = T_{ijk}(x,y)n_k(y)$$

(9)

with:

$$T_{ijk}(x,y) = \frac{3}{4\pi r^2} r_i r_j r_k$$

(10)

In the above, $x$ is a source point, $y$ is a field point, $r$ is the Euclidean distance between the source and field points, $r_i = \partial r/\partial x_i = (v_i - x_i)/r$ and $\delta_{ij}$ are the components of the Kronecker delta. Also, the symbol $\delta$ denotes the finite part of the integral in the sense of Mukherjee [30,31].

Eq. (7) follows from (6) since $\int_{\partial B} T_{ij}(x,y)ds(y) = 0$ for $x \in B \to x \in \partial B$ (see [30,31]).

A major simplification occurs if the moving structure can be considered to be rigid. In this case, one gets the simple equation [28]:

$$v_i(x) = g_i(x) = \int_{\partial B} G_{ij}(x,y)\tau_j(y)ds(y), \quad x \in \partial B$$

(11)

The traction vector for the rigid structure case also satisfies the higher order homogeneous equation:

$$\tau_i(x) = n_i(x) \int_{\partial B} T_{ijk}(x,y)\tau_j(y)ds(y), \quad x \in \partial B$$

(12)

A hypersingular equation for a deformable body, which is a generalization of (12), can also be derived, but is not done in this paper. (Please see analogous derivations of BIEs for linear elastic fracture mechanics in e.g. [5]).

Eq. (11) is known to have a major ‘defect’. It has a nontrivial null space of dimension $N$, where $N$ is the number of conductors in the system. Each solution in the null space of $G$ is of the form

$$v_i^{(\alpha)}(x) = \begin{cases} n_i(x), & x \in \partial B^{(\alpha)} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad \alpha = 1, 2, 3, \ldots N$$

(13)

where $n(x)$ is the unit normal to $\partial B^{(\alpha)}$ at $x$, pointing into the solid structure.

Several elegant ways of overcoming this problem have been recently suggested by Frangi and di Gioia [22]. These include use of the corresponding equations for incompressible linear elasticity, but with the Poisson’s ratio $\nu$ close to the value of 0.5 (e.g. 0.499); use of a weighted linear combination of Eqs. (11) and (12), etc. These ideas are excellent for the general case. A very simple novel remedy, however, is possible for MEMS problems with very thin plates (or beams). The plate case is discussed below.

3. Stokes flow around very thin plates

3.1. Standard BIE

Analogous to the electrostatics problem [19,20] (see Fig. 1), consider the flow in a region outside of, in this case, a single thin plate. (One plate is considered for simplicity of explanation—flow around many plates can also be easily modeled.) Eq. (6), with $x^+ \in s^+$, is now written as

$$v_i(x^+) = g_i(x^+)$$

$$= \int_{s^+} T_{ij}(x^+,y)w_j(y)ds(y)$$

$$+ \int_{s^+} G_{ij}(x^+,y)q_j(y)ds(y), \quad x^+ \in s^+$$

(14)

where $q_j = \tau_j^+ + \tau_j^-$ and $w_j = v_j^+ - v_j^-.$

3.1.1. Rigid plate

For a rigid plate, the first integral on the right-hand side of (14) is absent (see Eq. (11)) and one gets the following simple equation:

$$v_i(x^+) = g_i(x^+) = \int_{s^+} G_{ij}(x^+,y)q_j(y)ds(y), \quad x^+ \in s^+$$

(15)

It is proved below that the null space of the kernel $G$ is now empty and (15) has a unique solution for any prescribed velocity $g(x)$ on $\partial B = s^+ \cup s^-!$

Proof 1. The homogeneous version of Eq. (11), with a single thin plate, is:
\[
0 = \oint_{\partial B} G(x, y) \tau_j(y) \, ds(y)
= \int_{s^+} G(x, y) \tau_j^+(y) \, ds(y)
+ \int_{s^-} G(x, y) \tau_j^-(y) \, ds(y), \quad x \in s^+ \cup s^-(16)
\]

The only nontrivial solution of (16) is
\[
\tau_j^+(y) = \alpha n_j^+(y), \quad \tau_j^-(y) = \alpha n_j^-(y)
\]
where \(\alpha\) is a non-zero number. Therefore, (16) becomes:
\[
0 = \int_{s^+} G(x, y) [\tau_j^+(y) + \tau_j^-(y)] \, ds(y)
= \int_{s^+} G(x, y) \alpha [n_j^+(y) + n_j^-(y)] \, ds(y)
= \int_{s^+} G(x, y) \alpha [m_j(y)] \, ds(y)(18)
\]

But \(m_j = n_j^+ + n_j^- = 0\) since the normals on the two sides of the plate are equal and opposite. Therefore, the only solution of (18) is the trivial solution and the null space of the kernel in (15) is empty. □

**Proof 2.** Consider the equations:
\[
0 = \int_{s^+} G(x, y) \tau_j(y) \, ds(y), \quad x^+ \in s^+(19)
\]

\[
\int_{s^+} G(x, y) \tau_j(y) \, ds(y) = \int_{s^-} G(x, y) \tau_j(y) \, ds(y),
\]

\(x^- \in s^-; \quad x^+ \in s^+(20)\)

Please note that (20) is true within the thin plate assumption. Rewrite (19) and (20) as
\[
0 = \int_{s^+ \cup s^-} G(x, y) \hat{\tau}_j \, ds(y), \quad x \in s^+ \cup s^-(21)
\]

where:
\[
\hat{\tau}_j(y) = \begin{cases} 
\tau_j(y), & y \in s^+ \\
0, & y \in s^- 
\end{cases}
\]

It is known that the only solution of (21) is
\[
\hat{\tau}_j(y) = \alpha n_j(y)
\]

where \(\alpha\) is a number and the unit normal (to \(s^+ \cup s^-\)) \(n(y) \neq 0, \forall y \in s^+ \cup s^-\). Also, one must have the same value of \(\alpha\) over all of \(s^+ \cup s^-\). Therefore, since \(\alpha = 0\) on \(s^-\), it must also be zero on \(s^+\); i.e. \(\tau(y) = 0, \forall y \in s^+\). It follows that the only solution of (19) is:
\[
\tau_j(y) = 0
\]

In other words, the kernel \(G\) in Eq. (19) is invertible. □

### 3.1.2. Flexible plate

For a very thin flexible plate, it is possible that \(w_s\) is so small that the first integral on the right-hand side of (14) can be neglected relative to the second, so that one again ends up with Eq. (15). Otherwise, the first integral on the right-hand side of Eq. (14) can be regularized as follows (see Fig. 1):
\[
\int_{s^+} T(x, y) w_j(y) \, ds(y)
= \int_{s^-} T(x, y) w_j(y) \, ds(y) + \int_{s^+} T(x, y) w_j(y) \, ds(y)
- w_j(x) \, ds(y) + w_j(x) \left[ \int \frac{\Omega(s^+, x^+)}{4\pi} \delta_{ij} \right]
(25)
\]

The first term in Eq. (25) is regular, the second is weakly singular and the third is strongly singular. Using Stokes’ theorem, the third term can be converted to a line integral [5]
\[
\int_{s^+} T(x, y) \, ds(y) = g_j(x^+) + \frac{\Omega(s^+, x^+)}{4\pi} \delta_{ij}(26)
\]

where
\[
g_j(x^+) = \frac{\epsilon_{f_m}}{4\pi} \int_{s^+} \frac{r_j(x^+, y) r_k(x^+, y)}{r(x^+, y)} \, dr_m
(27)
\]

and \(\Omega(s^+, x^+)\) is the solid angle subtended by \(s^+\) at the point \(x^+\). This is (see [19,5] and Fig. 2):
\[
\Omega(s^+, x^+) = \int_{s^+} \frac{r(x^+, y) \cdot n(y)}{r^3(x^+, y)} \, ds(y)
= \int_{0}^{2\pi} [1 - \cos(\psi(\theta))] \, d\theta
(28)
\]

In the above, \(\epsilon_{ijk}\) are the components of the alternating tensor, \(r = y - x\) and \(r_i = y_i - x_i\).

Fig. 2. Line integral for evaluation of solid angle.
In Fig. 2, a local coordinate system \((x,y,z)\) is set up with the origin at \(x^+\) such that the positive \(z\)-axis intersects the surface \(s^+\). Now, \(\psi\) is the angle between the positive \(z\)-axis and \(\mathbf{r}(x^+,y)\) with \(y \in \hat{L}^t\) and \(\theta\) is the angle between the positive \(x\)-axis and the projection of \(\mathbf{r}(x^+,y)\) in the \(xy\) plane. Finally, \(\hat{L}^t\) is the bounding contour of the open surface \(s^+\).

Using Eqs. (25), (26) and (28), one finally gets a regularized version of Eq. (14) as follows:

\[
(1/2)[v_i(x^+) + v_i(x^-)] = \int_{s^+} T_{ij}(x^+,y)w_j(y)dy + \int_{s^+} T_{ij}(x^+,y)[w_i(y) - w_i(x)]dy \nonumber \\
- w_j(x)dy + g_{ij}(x^+)w_j(x) - \frac{w_j(x)}{4\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \cos \psi(\theta)d\theta \nonumber \\
+ \int_{s^+} G_{ij}(x^+,y)q_j(y)dy, \quad x^+ \in \hat{s}^+, \quad x^- \in \hat{s}^- \tag{29}
\]

3.2. Traction BIE for a thin rigid plate

Using Eqs. (29), which delivers the net traction (given the velocity), and therefore the resultant force on a plate, is sufficient for MEMS simulations. Sometimes, however, one might need to find the tractions separately. This can be done by using a thin plate version of the traction BIE.

Only the case of a thin rigid plate is considered here for the sake of simplicity. The flexible case can be considered in a manner analogous to the treatment of crack problems in linear elasticity (see, e.g. [5]).

The traction BIE (12) for a thin rigid plate can be written as (see Fig. 1):

\[
\tau_i(x^+) = n_k(x^+) \int_{s^+} T_{ijk}(x^+,y)q_j(y)dy, \quad x^+ \in \hat{s}^+ \tag{30}
\]

A regularized version of Eq. (30) is obtained as follows:

\[
\tau_i(x^+) = n_k(x^+) \int_{s^+} T_{ijk}(x^+,y)q_j(y)dy \nonumber \\
+ \int_{\hat{s}^+} T_{ijk}(x^+,y)[q_j(y)n_k(x^+) - q_j(x)n_k(y)]dy \nonumber \\
+ q_j(x) - \int_{\hat{s}^+} q_j(x)n_k(y)dy, \quad x^+ \in \hat{s}^+ \tag{31}
\]

The first term in Eq. (31) is regular, the second is weakly singular and the third is strongly singular. A derivation that is almost identical to that given in Section 3.1 leads to the final regularized equation:

\[
(1/2)[\tau_i(x^+) - \tau_i(x^-)] = n_k(x^+) \int_{s^+} T_{ijk}(x^+,y)q_j(y)dy + \int_{s^+} T_{ijk}(x^+,y) \nonumber \\
\times [q_j(y)n_k(x^+) - q_j(x)n_k(y)]dy + g_{ij}(x^+)q_j(x) \nonumber \\
- \frac{q_j(x)}{4\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \cos \psi(\theta)d\theta, \quad x^+ \in \hat{s}^+, \quad x^- \in \hat{s}^- \tag{32}
\]

Given the velocity field on the surface of a thin rigid plate, Eq. (15) can be used to solve for the sum of the tractions (i.e. the net traction) on the plate. Next, Eq. (32) can be used, as a post-processing step, to obtain the individual tractions, if desired, on the upper and lower surfaces of the plate.

Special case of a single thin rigid flat plate. Eqs. (15) and (32) are valid for flat as well as for curved plates (i.e. thin shells). For the case of a flat plate, however, each of the terms on the right-hand side of (32) vanishes (see below), and one is left with the simple equation:

\[
\tau_i(x^+) - \tau_i(x^-) = 0, \quad x^+ \in \hat{s}^+, \quad x^- \in \hat{s}^- \tag{33}
\]

The first term on the right-hand side of Eq. (32) vanishes since, for a flat plate, \(\mathbf{r}(x^+,y) \cdot \mathbf{n}(x^+) = 0\). The second term vanishes for the same reason when \(r \neq 0\) and also vanishes for \(r \to 0\) since it is weakly singular. Also, for a flat plate \(g_{ij}(x^+) = 0\). This can be seen from using \(\mathbf{r}(x^+,y) \cdot \mathbf{n}(x^+) = 0\) for \(r \neq 0\) in the integrand on the left-hand side of (26) and noting that the only free term from this integral, as \(r \to 0\), arises from the solid angle. Alternatively, one can directly evaluate the line integral on the right-hand side of (27), on, for example, the boundary \(\hat{L}^t\) of a square element \(s^+\) with \(x^+\) being any point inside it, and shows that it is zero. Finally, note from Fig. 2 that \(\psi = \pi/2\) for a flat plate, so that the last term on the right-hand side of (32) also vanishes.

From (33), one concludes that the traction difference \(\mathbf{r}(x^+) - \mathbf{r}(x^-)\) vanishes on a single thin rigid flat plate of any shape!

4. Numerical results for thin rigid plate problems

4.1. Nonsingular matrix

The first example is a numerical check of the fact that the matrix \([G]\) obtained from a discretized version of Eq. (15) is, indeed, non-singular. The top surface \(s^+\) of a flat square plate of unit size is discretized into \(N \times N\) square boundary elements. The unknown function \(q\) is assumed to be piecwise constant on each element. (This is done purely for simplicity—linear or higher order interpolations can, of course, be easily implemented.) The condition number of the matrix \([G]\), for different levels of discretization, is shown in Table 1. It is seen that these condition numbers are small and that the matrix \([G]\) is non-singular.
A thin rigid flat circular plate of unit area (radius \( \sqrt{2} \)) moves slowly through a viscous fluid. The plate initially lies in the \( x_1-x_2 \) plane. Two different motions are considered:

1. The velocity of the plate is \( v=k \)
2. The velocity of the plate is \( v=i \)

in consistent units. Here \((i,j,k)\) are the usual Cartesian unit basis vectors. Also, the dynamic viscosity of the fluid \( \mu = 1 \).

4.2. Code verification—a circular plate moving with uniform velocity through a viscous fluid

4.2.1. Exact and numerical solutions

This problem has an exact analytical solution for the drag on a circular plate of radius \( a \) [32]. This is \( 16 \mu V_0^3 \) for \( v = V_0 k \) and \( (32/3) \mu V_0^3 \) for \( v = V_0 i \).

Eq. (15) is solved for both cases with (a) a coarse mesh of 192 and (b) a fine mesh of 765 boundary elements on the upper plate surface \( s^+ \), with a piecewise uniform distribution of the tractions on the boundary elements. Numerical results for the drag, which is the integral of \( q \) over \( s^+ \) for case 1 and of \( q_1 \) over \( s^+ \) for case 2, are shown in Table 2. Analytical results are also shown in this table. Very good agreement is observed between the numerical and analytical results.

For case 1, the distribution of the resultant traction \( q_3 \) on the plate surface \( s^+ \), obtained from the fine mesh, is shown in Fig. 3. It is seen that the resultant tractions are high near the plate edges and low everywhere else. The other resultant traction components, \( q_1 \) and \( q_2 \), are zero in this case. Similar results for case 2, again from the fine mesh, appear in Fig. 4.

4.3. A square plate moving with uniform velocity through a viscous fluid

A thin rigid flat square plate of unit side moves slowly through a viscous fluid. The plate initially lies in the \( x_1-x_2 \) plane. Two different motions are considered:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition number</th>
<th>Condition number/N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4x4</td>
<td>9.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10x10</td>
<td>25.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15x15</td>
<td>38.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25x25</td>
<td>64.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35x35</td>
<td>89.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The condition number scales approximately linearly with \( N \).

4.4.3. Numerical results

Case 1. The distribution of the resultant traction \( q_3 \) on the plate surface \( s^+ \) is shown in Fig. 5. It is seen that the resultant tractions are high near the plate edges (highest at the corners) and low everywhere else. The other resultant traction components, \( q_1 \) and \( q_2 \), are zero. Combining these results with (33) leads to the conclusion:

\[
\tau^+_3 = \tau^-_3 = q_3/2, \quad \tau^+_1 = \tau^-_1 = 0, \quad \tau^+_2 = \tau^-_2 = 0 \quad (34)
\]

Case 2. Case 2 is very similar to case 1. The distribution of the resultant traction \( q_1 \) on the plate surface \( s^+ \) is shown in Fig. 6. The other resultant traction components, \( q_2 \) and \( q_3 \), are
at any point on the surface of the sphere is \( q \):  

\[ q = \frac{2\mu U}{2\alpha} e \]  

(36)

It is noted that the only non-zero traction component exists in the direction of motion and that the tractions at opposite points on the sphere surface are equal. Also, because of symmetry, the traction distribution on the sphere surface is uniform, but such is not the case for a thin plate.

Finally, it is important to mention that the traction components in Figs. 3–6, are, in fact, singular at the edges of the plate. The piecewise constant approximation for \( q \), of course, does not deliver these singularities—singular boundary elements must be employed for this purpose. This is a topic of continuing research.

4.3.2. Mesh dependence of BEM solution

The Case 1 problem for the square plate is solved for different levels of mesh discretization. Table 3 shows computed results for \( \tau^+_1(P) \) and drag for four different meshes. The coordinate axes are aligned to the edges of the (unit-sided square) plate with the origin at the left bottom corner, and the point \( P \) has coordinates \((0.3,0.3)\). The drag, as before, is the integral of \( q_3 \) over the upper plate surface \( s^+ \). It is seen that the mesh dependence of the numerical results is minimal.

5. Concluding remarks

BEM analysis of Stokes flow around a thin plate, and calculation of the resulting forces on the plate, typically presents two challenges. The first is that the usual Stokes kernel is singular. The second arises from the fact that if flow around a very thin plate is modeled by the usual BEM, the BIEs, collocated on the upper and lower surfaces of the plate are ‘nearly linearly dependent’ and can lead to an ill-conditioned stiffness matrix. A novel solution to both these problems is proposed in this paper. Using ideas presented before by many researchers for the modeling of very thin cracks by the BEM (see, e.g. [5] for a discussion of this problem together with a list of references), a thin plate or shell is replaced by a mathematical surface of zero thickness. Now, the sum of the charges in an electrostatic problem [19], or the resultant traction on a plate in a Stokes flow problem, can be computed directly. If necessary, the separate charges (or tractions) can then be computed, as a post-processing step, by employing the gradient (or the traction) BIE.

A major problem, however, still remains for modeling of practical MEM structures such as comb drives or resonators. This is because the thin plates or beams in these devices are also typically packed very closely together. A scheme is presented in [19] for modeling the electrostatic problem with thin plates that are reasonably densely packed together. It has been very recently demonstrated that this idea works for electrostatic problems for parallel plates with gaps between them that are of the order of ten times a plate thickness [34]. Successful modeling of MEM structures with plates that are packed very densely together (e.g. with gaps that are of the order of a plate thickness) is still an open problem. One possible idea for solving this problem is to extrapolate BEM solutions for traction distributions as a function of gap size for gaps \( \geq 10 \ h \), down to gaps \( \approx O(h) \). For electrostatic problems, this extrapolation scheme should be guided by the dependence of total charge density on gap (see, e.g. Fig. 8 in [19]), together with the well-known inverse square law that governs force as a function of total charge density on gap (see, e.g. Fig. 8 in [19]).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discretization N×N</th>
<th>( \tau^+_1(0.3,0.3) )</th>
<th>Drag on plate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5×5</td>
<td>2.5233</td>
<td>8.6813</td>
</tr>
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<td>15×15</td>
<td>2.6301</td>
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<td>25×25</td>
<td>2.6076</td>
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<td>2.5968</td>
<td>9.1364</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
a function of charge density. This problem is a topic of continuing research.

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