

Constant-pressure sound waves in non-Hermitian disordered media

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When waves impinge on a disordered material they are back-scattered and form a highly complex interference pattern. Suppressing any such distortions of a wave's free propagation is a challenging task with many applications in a number of different disciplines. In a recent theoretical proposal, it was pointed out that both perfect transmission through disorder as well as a complete suppression of any variation in a wave's intensity can be achieved by adding a continuous gain-loss distribution to the disorder. Here we propose a practical discretised version of this abstract concept and implement it in a realistic acoustic system. Our prototype consists of an acoustic waveguide containing several inclusions that scatter the incoming wave in a passive configuration and provide the gain or loss when being actively controlled. Our measurements on this non-Hermitian acoustic metamaterial demonstrate unambiguously the creation of a reflectionless scattering wave state that features a unique form of discrete constant-amplitude pressure waves. In addition to demonstrating that gain-loss additions can turn localised systems into transparent ones, we expect our proof-of-principle demonstration to trigger interesting new developments not only in sound engineering, but also in other related fields such as in non-Hermitian photonics.

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This is the accepted manuscript.

The published paper with doi: 10.1038/s41567-018-0188-7 is accessible online on Nature Physics website:

<https://www.nature.com/articles/s41567-018-0188-7>

32 The disordered structure of a material renders many of the objects in our everyday lives
33 opaque (we cannot see through them) or impenetrable for sound (our hearing is impaired
34 when we plug them in our ears). In contrast to crystalline structures that have well-defined
35 transmission bands and corresponding gaps between them, a disordered medium leads to
36 multiple scattering that typically prevents wave transmission in very broadband spectral
37 intervals¹⁻³. This aspect constitutes, in fact, a central challenge for many active research
38 areas⁴⁻¹¹ such as for biomedical imaging⁴, metamaterial design^{5,7,11}, wireless data transfer⁶,
39 and wave control⁸⁻¹⁰. The strategies available to cope with the adverse effects of disorder
40 scattering in these different domains typically involve either shaping the wavefront that
41 impinges on the disorder^{4,6,8-10}, redesigning the internal structure of the disordered
42 medium^{7,11}, exploiting topological protection¹², or cloaking the medium altogether⁵. A novel
43 and potentially very useful approach to achieve novel functionalities of a system is to imprint
44 on it a suitable distribution of gain and loss in the context of non-Hermitian wave physics¹³⁻
45 ²⁷, a research area initially driven by theoretical and experimental studies of non-Hermitian
46 photonic¹⁵⁻²⁰ or acoustic²¹⁻²³ systems that respect Parity-Time symmetry^{13,14}. Theoretical
47 calculations²⁸⁻²⁹ show that, in this way, so-called “constant-intensity (CI) waves” can be
48 generated that perfectly penetrate even through disordered media without any
49 backscattering and intensity variations throughout the entire transmission process. In other
50 words, such CI waves have the very unconventional feature that they can propagate even
51 through strongly disordered structures like a plane wave through free space. The only
52 signature they carry from the inhomogeneous medium that they penetrate is in the phase
53 they accumulate, but not in their intensity.

54 These exotic wave states do not just exist for light, as originally predicted²⁹, but also for
55 acoustic waves. Indeed, considering an acoustic scattering landscape formed by a real-
56 valued, spatially-varying distribution of mass density $\rho_R(x)$ (Fig. 1a), it is possible to add to it
57 a unique distribution of gain and loss $\rho_I(x)$ (see Methods) such that waves incident on the
58 non-Hermitian scattering landscape described by the complex-valued density $\rho(x) =$
59 $\rho_R(x) + i\rho_I(x)$ propagate through this non-uniform medium without any variations in
60 pressure amplitude (Fig. 1b) and with no reflection. However, a major obstacle to the
61 practical implementation of this elegant theoretical concept is the challenge of building
62 continuous gain-loss distributions in realistic systems. Therefore, to bring this abstract idea

63 to life, we extend here the notion of constant-intensity scattering states to systems involving
 64 discontinuous and discrete distributions of gain and loss.

65 Consider for this purpose a one-dimensional acoustic metamaterial composed of an air-filled
 66 tube, loaded with a set of discrete acoustic inclusions modelled by acoustic impedances Z_j .
 67 At low frequencies, where only a single mode can be excited, the system can be described by
 68 a transmission-line (TL) model, as illustrated in Fig. 2a. According to acoustic TL theory³⁰, the
 69 line voltage represents the complex acoustic pressure p , and the line current represents the
 70 volume flow q . The black boxes represent the acoustic inclusions, introducing some
 71 discontinuities of the acoustic pressure along the line, while preserving the volume flow. The
 72 grey subsystems correspond to arbitrary transfer matrices $M_j = [A_j, B_j; C_j, D_j]$ that connect
 73 these impedances. It is important to note that in this description, the non-Hermiticity of the
 74 impedance Z_j is represented by its non-zero *real* part (describing positive or negative value
 75 of resistance), whereas the *imaginary* part corresponds to the Hermitian component
 76 (describing capacitive or inductive behaviour). Indeed, the imaginary and real parts of these
 77 impedances correspond to local modifications of the real and imaginary parts of the acoustic
 78 density, respectively²¹. We assume that the finite system with altogether n inclusions is
 79 connected to two semi-infinite half-spaces described by characteristic impedances Z_L (left)
 80 and Z_R (right).

81 As we demonstrate here explicitly, such an acoustic system can support a powerful, discrete
 82 version of the constant-pressure sound wave. As in the continuous case, we start by
 83 considering an incoming wave with unit amplitude from the left and assume that the
 84 acoustic pressures p_j only differ in their phases, but not in their amplitudes, enforcing
 85 $p_{j+1} = e^{ik\varphi_j} p_j$ at the sites $j \in \llbracket 1, n \rrbracket$. In Methods, we show that this assumption forces the
 86 volume flows q_j to take the values

$$87 \quad q_j = \frac{1}{\prod_{l=1}^{j-1} D_l} q_1 - \sum_{l=1}^{j-1} \frac{C_l}{\prod_{m=l}^{j-1} D_m} p_{l+1}. \quad (1)$$

88 The required acoustic impedance at the site j is then found to be

$$89 \quad Z_j = \frac{p_j - A_j p_{j+1} - B_j q_{j+1}}{C_j p_{j+1} + D_j q_{j+1}}. \quad (2)$$

90
 91 Equation (2) directly implies that in order to obtain a constant-pressure sound wave at every
 92 site $j \in \llbracket 1, n + 1 \rrbracket$, the real parts of the corresponding acoustic impedances Z_j need to be

93 non-zero in general. Therefore, the non-Hermiticity of a system is, indeed, a basic
94 requirement for the realization of non-trivial constant-amplitude waves.

95 To illustrate the unique properties of these wave states, we consider the example of a
96 disordered acoustic system that is initially Hermitian and terminated by $Z_L = Z_R =$
97 Z_0 (altogether $n = 8$ inclusions are incorporated). We also assume that they are connected
98 by identical air-filled tube portions whose transfer matrices are defined by $A_j = D_j =$
99 $\cos kd$, $B_j = iZ_0 \sin kd$, $C = iZ_0^{-1} \sin kd$, where Z_0 is the characteristic acoustic impedance
100 in the tube. In this case, the corresponding acoustic impedances Z_j are first assumed to be
101 purely imaginary, corresponding to lossless elements that are either pure masses or springs.
102 Their impedance values are randomly chosen from a uniform distribution. Figure 2b
103 illustrates the impedance at each inclusion by a point on the complex plane, whose colour is
104 associated with the considered site. Upon unitary excitation from the left, the acoustic
105 pressure illustrated in Fig. 2c is strongly non-uniform at the sites $[[1, n + 1]]$, and its
106 amplitude is very small at the output (yellow point). This case illustrates how disorder
107 usually prevents efficient wave transmission.

108 We compare this situation with the case of a non-Hermitian system, whose acoustic
109 impedances Z_j have the same imaginary parts as in the previous case, but now their real
110 parts are non-zero, following Eq. (2). As shown in Fig. 2d, and comparing with Fig. 2b, each
111 point has now moved away from the imaginary axis along the horizontal direction, which
112 corresponds to the punctual addition of loss or gain to the system. As can be seen in Fig. 2e,
113 these non-Hermitian modifications have a significant impact on the distribution of the
114 acoustic pressures within the system. Remarkably, all the acoustic pressures at the sites
115 $[[1, n + 1]]$ now stick to the unit circle, such that they have the same amplitude as the
116 incident wave, and different phases that exactly match the values for the phases φ_j chosen
117 by design. As a by-product of this constant amplitude-property, the pressure wave gets
118 perfectly transmitted.

119 In order to better grasp the microscopic field dynamics related to this extraordinary
120 phenomenon, including the behaviour of the pressure in-between the non-Hermitian
121 inclusions, we simulated a 3D air-filled cylindrical pipe loaded with eight transverse
122 membranes ($n = 8$), whose corresponding acoustic impedances are set by applying
123 appropriate internal impedance boundary conditions. Figure 3a shows the real part of the

124 acoustic pressure (at a given moment of time; black line) obtained for excitation from the
125 left for the case of the purely Hermitian system with a large degree of disorder (values given
126 in Fig. 2b). All the sites illustrated in colour are lossless and correspond to purely reactive but
127 mismatched acoustic impedances (with $Z_{n+1} = 0$, consistent with our numbering
128 convention in Fig. 2a). The grey area represents the values spanned by the pressure at each
129 point over a full period of the harmonic field. As a result of the large disorder present in the
130 system, the acoustic wave is mostly reflected and the absolute value of the pressure
131 decreases rapidly along the system.

132 In a next step this situation is compared to the corresponding non-Hermitian system
133 designed to support a constant-pressure wave. In Fig. 3b, the eight inclusions are tuned to
134 provide the right amount of gain and loss as prescribed by our theory (consistent with Fig.
135 2d). Remarkably, the acoustic pressure now propagates through the system and the wave is
136 perfectly transmitted at site $n + 1$. In addition, we notice that the grey envelope meets the
137 unity dashed red line right in front of every membrane inclusion corresponding to the
138 location of every pressure site p_j . In contrast to continuous constant-amplitude waves, the
139 discrete design adopted here forces the pressure amplitude to be unitary at each check
140 point p_j , but not in between. Notice, however, that this is not a severe limitation of the
141 concept, since the distance between neighbouring sites p_j can be chosen arbitrarily small
142 and, when being subwavelength, prevents large amplitude fluctuations in between the sites.
143 In addition, since the pressure amplitude at the last site p_{n+1} is fully controlled, despite the
144 fact that no inclusion is present at that location, perfect transmission can be guaranteed by
145 design. We conclude that the present discretisation of the constant amplitude property does
146 not introduce any fundamental limitation or change in functionality when compared to the
147 continuous case, while it brings a significant simplification on the required gain-loss
148 distribution. Our findings therefore suggest that a proper discrete distribution of gain and
149 loss offers sufficient control over the scattering state in a strongly disordered system, thanks
150 to local injection and absorption of energy within the material.

151 So far, we have only demonstrated the special case where the membrane inclusions were at
152 the same time the source of Hermitian disorder and of the required gain and loss. However,
153 our theory is more general and can accommodate any type of disorder placed at any
154 location, including away from the pressure sites. Indeed, the transfer matrices M_j , so far
155 considered constant and identical at all sites, can in general be different and describe the

156 presence of scattering defects of any type. To prove this, we consider the full-wave
157 scattering scenario of Figure 4a. An acoustic pipe is filled with defects of various kinds,
158 including pipe section discontinuities, hard-wall obstacles, porous walls, labyrinthine
159 detours, and even a strongly resonant side Helmholtz resonator. These defects, by
160 themselves, lead to a largely inhomogeneous wave amplitude inside the system, and
161 completely prevent efficient wave transmission through it, as shown in Fig. 4a. Yet, knowing
162 their transfer matrices M_j , one can use our theory [Eq. (2)] to determine proper values of
163 gain and loss to add between these defects, in order to turn this opaque system into a
164 transparent one (Fig. 4b). From the figure, it is clear that at each pressure site p_1 to p_7 the
165 amplitude of the pressure has been restored to unity, providing an interesting way of
166 steering sound seamlessly through an arbitrary combination of obstacles by engineering a
167 special scattering state with discrete constant amplitude.

168 Based on our discrete theory, we built a non-Hermitian metamaterial prototype as shown in
169 Fig. 5. This 2.75 m-long acoustic metamaterial consists of eight identical loudspeakers placed
170 between identical cylindrical acoustic waveguide sections of length d . In the low-frequency
171 approximation, the electrodynamic loudspeaker can be modelled as a one-degree-of-
172 freedom oscillator (that is a mass-spring-damper system) mechanically driven by a voice coil
173 within a magnetic field. When an appropriate electrical circuit is connected to the transducer
174 terminals, it is possible to control the dynamic mechanical behaviour of the diaphragm (see
175 Methods). Here, each loudspeaker is connected to a control unit designed to assign a target
176 acoustic impedance [prescribed by Eq. (2)] to the diaphragm at the design frequency. This
177 control unit regulates the diaphragm velocity of the current-driven loudspeaker at site j by
178 measuring the front and rear sides acoustic pressures p_{fj} and p_{rj} , and returning the proper
179 electrical current according to the target complex gains. A sound source is located at the left
180 side of the system and is connected to a tube of cross-section area S . A tube of the same
181 cross-section area is connected at the right side of the system, corresponding to a situation
182 in which $Z_L = Z_R = Z_0$. Lastly, the rightmost end of the system is terminated by a matched
183 load that guarantees no reflection at the design frequency (121 Hz). Figures 5a and 5b show
184 a photograph and the schematic of the complete set-up, respectively.

185 Figure 6 reports our measurements (coloured data), comparing it with theory (black data).
186 First, we considered a reference Hermitian system in which the imaginary parts of acoustic
187 impedances were chosen in the interval $[-1.8 Z_0, 0]$ (negative values of reactance are

188 more easily obtained from the loudspeakers at the frequency of operation). Statistical
189 considerations based on ensemble averages show that such a system operates in the regime
190 of Anderson localisation, with a localisation length just below one meter, making the total
191 prototype about three times the localisation length (see Methods). The realisation of
192 disorder considered in the experiment is shown in Fig. 6b. The acoustic pressures that were
193 measured directly in front of the inclusions with the help of microphones are displayed in
194 Fig. 6c. Clearly, the localised scattering state has a spatially very inhomogeneous amplitude,
195 and a strongly reduced transmission to the other side (measured at 33%). Conversely, when
196 we turn on the control by adding gain and loss in amounts prescribed by theory (Fig. 6d), the
197 measured pressure amplitudes become identical at each site (Fig. 6e), demonstrating the
198 unique ability of non-Hermitian systems to fight disorder. In this situation, we measured a
199 unitary transmittance (with percent-level accuracy), and near-perfect agreement with
200 theory. The very small discrepancies found did not affect the constant-amplitude property,
201 which was observed to be quite robust to small variations of the impedances. Altogether,
202 our measurements unambiguously demonstrate that a tailor-made discrete distribution of
203 gain and loss opens up a transparency window in a disordered and Anderson-localised
204 Hermitian system in which pressure waves can propagate with constant-amplitude at
205 discrete check points.

206 **Methods**

207 **Continuous constant-pressure waves.** Here, we detail the theory of constant-amplitude
208 pressure waves in continuous acoustic systems like the one of Fig. 1 for which, contrary to
209 our everyday experience, sound propagates through a non-uniform medium without any
210 variations in its pressure amplitude. We firstly consider a finite one-dimensional scattering
211 geometry of length $2L$ embedded in a uniform background acoustic medium. In the
212 scattering region between $-L$ and L , the bulk modulus κ_0 is assumed constant and the
213 complex mass density is position-dependent such as

$$214 \quad \rho(x) = \rho_R(x) + i\rho_I(x). \quad (3)$$

215 The acoustic pressure $p(x)$ follows the acoustic Helmholtz equation

$$216 \quad [\Delta + \omega^2 \rho(x) \kappa_0^{-1}] p(x) = 0, \quad (4)$$

217 where $\Delta = d^2/dx^2$ is the Laplacian in 1D and $\omega = 2\pi f$ is the angular frequency with f being
218 the frequency. Looking for a solution $p(x)\exp(i\omega t)$ traveling only in positive x -direction
219 with constant pressure and a position-dependent phase, we make the ansatz

$$220 \quad p(x) = A e^{ik \int_{-L}^x W(x') dx'}, \quad (5)$$

221 where A is the constant (spatially independent) amplitude of the pressure, k is the
222 wavenumber, and $W(x)$ is a real auxiliary function, which can be chosen arbitrarily. Inserting
223 Eq. (5) into Eq. (4) provides us with a design principle for the real and imaginary parts of the
224 mass density,

$$225 \quad \rho_R(x) = \frac{\kappa_0 k^2 W^2(x)}{\omega^2} \quad (6)$$

$$226 \quad \rho_I(x) = -\frac{\kappa_0 k W'(x)}{\omega^2} \quad (7)$$

227 with $W' = dW(x)/dx$. Note that the wavenumber k appearing in $\rho_R(x)$ and $\rho_I(x)$ in Eqs.
228 (6,7) is the same as in the ansatz in Eq. (5), meaning that only waves with this specific
229 wavenumber impinging from the left-hand side on this structure lead to a constant pressure
230 wave also inside the structure as illustrated in Fig. 1.

231 For the trivial case that the auxiliary function $W(x) = 1$ is independent of position, we get
232 $\rho_I(x) = 0$ and $\rho_R(x) = \kappa k^2 / \omega^2$. Using $\omega = kv$, we get $v = \sqrt{\kappa/\rho}$ which is the well-known

233 expression for the speed of sound in a uniform material. In this sense, this continuous
 234 formulation generalises the trivial plane wave solution $p(x) = A \exp(ikx)$ to the non-trivial
 235 case of an inhomogeneous medium, where acoustic gain and loss [$\rho_l(x) \neq 0$] are required
 236 to maintain a spatially constant pressure wave.

237

238 **Discrete constant-pressure waves.** The situation represented in Fig. 2a can be analysed
 239 through the transfer matrix formalism³¹. The pressure p_j and volume flow q_j at each
 240 inclusion $j \in \llbracket 1, n \rrbracket$ are related by:

$$241 \quad \begin{pmatrix} p_j \\ q_j \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & Z_j \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_j & B_j \\ C_j & D_j \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p_{j+1} \\ q_{j+1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (8)$$

242 where $M_j = [A_j, B_j; C_j, D_j]$ represents the transfer matrices connecting the impedances Z_j
 243 and Z_{j+1} . In addition, assuming an incident wave from the left with amplitude $p_{inc} = 1$ Pa,
 244 we use the boundary conditions

$$245 \quad p_{n+1}/q_{n+1} = Z_R \quad (9)$$

$$246 \quad p_1/p_{inc} = 1 + R \quad (10)$$

$$247 \quad q_1/p_{inc} = (1 - R)/Z_L, \quad (11)$$

248 where R is the reflection coefficient. If we assume that the acoustic pressures have the same
 249 amplitude at all the sites, enforcing $p_{j+1} = e^{ik \varphi_j} p_j$, we have $p_{j+1} = \exp(ik \sum_{l=1}^j \varphi_l) p_1$.
 250 Then, all the pressures p_j are known as a function of p_1 , or equivalently, R [see Eq. (10)].
 251 This choice for the pressures p_j also fixes the corresponding volume flows q_j according to
 252 Eq. (8). Indeed, solving the recurrence equation $q_j = C_j p_{j+1} + D_j q_{j+1}$ directly yields Eq. (1).
 253 Then, with Eqs. (1) and (11), we also know all the volume flows q_j as a function of the
 254 reflection coefficient R . To determine the value of R , we need to enforce the boundary
 255 condition at the end of the line given in Eq. (9). We obtain

$$256 \quad (1 + R) e^{ik \sum_{l=1}^n \varphi_l} = Z_R \left(\frac{1}{\prod_{l=1}^n D_l} q_1 - \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{C_l}{\prod_{m=l}^n D_m} p_{l+1} \right) \quad (12)$$

257 which yields $R = (Z_{in} - Z_L)/(Z_{in} + Z_L)$, where Z_{in} is the input acoustic impedance (at site
 258 1) expressed as

$$259 \quad Z_{in} = Z_R \frac{1}{\prod_{l=1}^n D_l} \frac{1}{e^{ik \sum_{l=1}^n \varphi_l + Z_R \sum_{l=1}^n \frac{C_l}{\prod_{m=l}^n D_m} e^{ik \sum_{r=1}^l \varphi_r}}}. \quad (13)$$

260 Since all the acoustic quantities are completely determined, we can calculate the target
 261 acoustic impedances Z_j from Eq. (8), directly getting Eq. (2). We see that if we set all the

262 pressure phases φ_j , then both the acoustic impedances Z_j and the reflection coefficient R
 263 are fixed. Another possibility is to set $R = 0$ to obtain a system without any reflection, at the
 264 cost of relaxing two degrees of freedom in the choice of the phases. For instance, we can
 265 impose the sum of the phases to be constant (in order to be able to set the total phase of
 266 the transmission coefficient) and tune two values of phase to enforce the reflection
 267 coefficient $R = 0$ (in this case for which the system becomes transparent the pressure
 268 amplitudes on all sites are not only identical, but also equal to the incident pressure
 269 amplitude). Since the impedance Z_j at the inclusion j in Eq. (2) does not depend on the
 270 pressure and volume flow of previous sites $\llbracket 1, j - 1 \rrbracket$ on the TL, we used in our numerical
 271 simulations the first two phases φ_1 and φ_2 to set $R = 0$ without modifying the rest of the
 272 design. Using this theory, we can generate many matched systems supporting constant-
 273 amplitude pressure waves, even for arbitrarily large values of n . Note that even in the case
 274 $R \neq 0$, our theory leads to a distribution of gain and loss in the system with constant
 275 pressure at every site $j \in \llbracket 1, n + 1 \rrbracket$.

276

277 **Harmonic acoustic impedance control.** In the low-frequency approximation, the
 278 electrodynamic loudspeaker can be modelled as a one-degree-of-freedom oscillator
 279 mechanically driven by a voice coil within a magnetic field. All forces acting on the
 280 transducer, especially those resulting from the sound pressures p_f and p_r at the front and
 281 rear faces of the diaphragm, are assumed small enough so that the governing equations
 282 remain linear. The mechanical part is assumed as a simple mass-spring-damper system in the
 283 low-frequency range, that is the mass M_m , the mechanical compliance (inverse of stiffness)
 284 C_m accounting for the surround suspension and spider, and the mechanical resistance R_m ,
 285 respectively. If we denote the effective piston area by S_d and the force factor of the moving-
 286 coil transducer by Bl , the equation of motion of the loudspeaker diaphragm at inclusion j is
 287 derived from Newton's second law, which can be written using the Fourier transform as

$$288 \quad S_d P_{fj}(\omega) - S_d P_{rj}(\omega) = Z_{mj}(\omega) V_j(\omega) + Bl I_j(\omega), \quad (14)$$

289 where $Z_{mj}(\omega) = i\omega M_m + R_m + 1/(i\omega C_m)$ is the mechanical impedance of the
 290 loudspeaker, $V_j(\omega) = Q_j(\omega)/S_d$ is the diaphragm velocity, and $I_j(\omega)$ is the current flowing
 291 through the voice coil of the loudspeaker.

292 Our control strategy uses two microphones giving the signals $\widehat{P}_{fj}(\omega) = \sigma_{fj}P_{fj}(\omega)$ and
 293 $\widehat{P}_{rj}(\omega) = \sigma_{rj}P_{rj}(\omega)$, where σ_{fj} and σ_{rj} are the sensitivities of the microphones (in V.Pa⁻¹) at
 294 the front and rear sides of the corresponding loudspeaker diaphragm respectively, and
 295 return the current $I_j(\omega)$ with transfer functions $\Theta_j(\omega)$ ³² such as

$$296 \quad I_j(\omega) = \Theta_j(\omega, \sigma_{fj})\widehat{P}_{fj}(\omega) - \Theta_j(\omega, \sigma_{rj})\widehat{P}_{rj}(\omega). \quad (15)$$

297 Assuming the target acoustic impedance $Z_{tj}(\omega)$, which is defined in Eq. (2), is realized at the
 298 diaphragm, the transfer function $\Theta_j(\omega)$ from the microphone signal $\widehat{P}_{fj}(\omega)$ or $\widehat{P}_{rj}(\omega)$ to the
 299 electrical current $I_j(\omega)$ can be derived from Eqs. (14) and (15) as

$$300 \quad \Theta_j(\omega, \sigma) = \frac{S_d}{\sigma B l_j} \left(1 - \frac{Z_{mj}(\omega)}{S_d^2 Z_{tj}(\omega)} \right). \quad (16)$$

301 It is worth noting that the signal filtering through the transfer function Θ_j should be
 302 processed before differentiating the signals in Eq. (15), because of possible loss of
 303 significance in the controller. Note also that the situation $\Theta_j(\omega, \sigma) = 0$ through the voltage-
 304 controlled current source corresponds to the case where the loudspeaker is in open circuit
 305 [see Eqs. (14) and (15)].

306 For the inclusions giving gain to the system, that is $\text{Re}(Z_{tj}) < 0$ at the frequency of interest
 307 f_0 , the transfer function $\Theta_j(\omega)$ is in this case not causal and therefore, it cannot be
 308 implemented in a digital controller. We thus turn the broadband impedance control³² into a
 309 harmonic control through the formalism of demodulation/modulation³³. First, the
 310 microphone signals $\widehat{P}_{fj}(\omega)$ and $\widehat{P}_{rj}(\omega)$ are demodulated at the angular frequency of interest
 311 $\omega_0 = 2\pi f_0$ (translating both signals in the frequency domain from ω_0 to 0), whose low-pass
 312 filter of cut-off angular frequency $\omega_c \ll \omega_0$ is equal to 2 for $|\omega| < \omega_c$ and 0 otherwise.
 313 These complex signals are then multiplied by the target complex gain $\Theta_j(\omega_0, \sigma_{fj})$ or
 314 $\Theta_j(\omega_0, \sigma_{rj})$. The signals are then modulated at the angular frequency ω_0 (translating both
 315 signals in the frequency domain from 0 to ω_0). Lastly, the output signal of spectral range
 316 $[\omega_0 - \omega_c, \omega_0 + \omega_c]$ delivered by the voltage-controlled current source corresponds to the
 317 difference of both modulated signals as given in Eq. (15). This way, the target acoustic
 318 impedance Z_{tj} is perfectly assigned at the loudspeaker diaphragm at the frequency of
 319 interest.

320

321 **Experiment.** The experimental setup consisted of eight electrodynamic loudspeakers
322 ($n = 8$), separated from each other by a distance $d = 34.3$ cm in a tube of cylindrical cross-
323 section area $S = \pi r^2 = 40.7$ cm² (see Figure 5 and Supplementary Figure 1). At the left
324 termination we placed a sound source (closed-box loudspeaker) that delivered a band-
325 limited sweep sine of bandwidth [20 Hz – 400 Hz] with the help of a Brüel & Kjaer 2706
326 power amplifier. At the other termination we placed a matched load with the help of
327 another closed-box loudspeaker. A mass was added to the diaphragm and a resistive shunt
328 was connected to the electrical terminals³⁴ to decrease the resonance frequency and match
329 the acoustic resistance at the diaphragm to Z_0 respectively, guaranteeing no reflection at
330 the design frequency (121 Hz). We only used Monacor SPX-30M loudspeakers of effective
331 piston area $S_d = \pi r_d^2 = 32$ cm² in the experiment. The first site was located at a distance
332 $2d' = 50$ cm from the sound source and the last site at a distance d' from the matched load.
333 The target complex gain was defined for each controlled loudspeaker to get the exact values
334 of acoustic resistance and reactance for each site given in Eq. (2) at the desired frequency.
335 Eight pairs of ¼" PCB 130D20/130F20 microphones were wall-mounted in front and behind
336 every loudspeaker diaphragm. Each pair of microphones measured the acoustic pressures
337 p_{fj} and p_{rj} at each site j . Three additional microphones were also used in the experiment.
338 One microphone was located at around a distance d' from the sound source, another one at
339 the position of the ninth inclusion, and the last one in front of the matched load. The
340 frequency responses between microphone signals at the different sites were processed
341 through a Brüel & Kjaer Pulse 3160 multichannel analyser, so as to estimate the normalized
342 acoustic impedance at every inclusion and the transmission coefficient. The control was
343 implemented onto a real-time National Instrument CompactRIO-9068 platform supporting
344 field-programmable gate array technology. The voltage signals from the eight pairs of
345 microphones were digitally converted thanks to four analog modules NI 9215. The output
346 signals were then delivered by two analog modules NI 9263 to voltage-controlled current
347 sources that drove the loudspeakers.

348

349 **Estimation of the localisation length.** We have checked numerically that our disordered
350 system is indeed operated in the localised regime, and that its size is about three times the
351 localisation length. To verify this, we have computed the ensemble average of the logarithm
352 of the transmission coefficient $\langle \ln T \rangle$ over 1000 realisations of Hermitian disorder, for

353 systems composed of an increasing number of sites (hence increasing the total length of the
 354 system). Importantly, the disorder strength was set to be the same as in the experiment (i.e.
 355 the reactances were drawn randomly in the range $[-1.8 Z_0, 0]$). We found that the quantity
 356 $\langle \ln T \rangle$ falls off linearly with the number of sites (varying from 4 to 20 unit cells, see
 357 supplementary Figure 2), which is the hallmark for 1D Anderson localisation. The inverse
 358 slope, which gives the Anderson localisation length, is extracted to be 2.7 inclusions (92.6
 359 cm). Thus, our 2.75 m-long prototype is then comparable to three times the localisation
 360 length. Our experiment therefore demonstrates unambiguously that the addition of gain and
 361 loss can turn a localised system into a transparent one.

362

363 **Measurement of acoustic impedance of every inclusion.** The bulkiness of each loudspeaker
 364 driver in the tube locally alters the pressure and volume flow behind the diaphragm. To take
 365 this acoustic behaviour into account in the design, we model the geometry of the
 366 loudspeaker using the transfer matrix formalism. As illustrated in Supplementary Figure 1
 367 and according to Eq. (8), we choose $Z_j = Z_{mj}/S_d^2$ and

$$368 \quad M_j = \begin{pmatrix} A_j & B_j \\ C_j & D_j \end{pmatrix} = M_p(Z_0, d_1) M_p(Z_2, d_2) M_p(Z_0, d - d_1 - d_2), \quad (17)$$

369 where

$$370 \quad M_p(Z, x) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(kx) & iZ \sin(kx) \\ i \sin(kx)/Z & \cos(kx) \end{pmatrix} \quad (18)$$

371 and $d_1 = 2.6$ cm, $d_2 = 2.8$ cm, $Z_2 = S/(S - S_2)Z_0$ with $S_2 = \pi r_2^2 = 37.4$ cm².

372 First, we consider a preliminary setup consisting of only one inclusion as illustrated in
 373 Supplementary Figure 1. Regardless of the terminations of this piece of waveguide, the
 374 acoustic impedance at the diaphragm may be estimated either from the acoustic pressures
 375 p_A , p_B , and p_C (hereafter denoted as method 'ABC') such that

$$376 \quad (Z_j)_{ABC} = iZ_0 \sin(kd) \frac{p_B - p_C}{p_A - \cos(kd) p_B} \quad (19)$$

377 or from the acoustic pressures p_B , p_C , and p_D (method 'BCD') such that

$$378 \quad (Z_j)_{BCD} = B_j \frac{p_B - p_C}{D_j p_C + (B_j C_j - A_j D_j) p_D}. \quad (20)$$

379 The acoustic impedance Z_j can then be measured from Eqs. (19) and (20) with frequency
 380 responses $H_{BA} = \widehat{p}_A / \widehat{p}_B$, $H_{BC} = \widehat{p}_C / \widehat{p}_B$, and $H_{BD} = \widehat{p}_D / \widehat{p}_B$. When we performed these
 381 measurements for the preliminary setup, we found that the methods 'ABC' and 'BCD' gave
 382 consistent results. These methods were validated with a direct impedance measurement,

383 from the microphone signals \widehat{p}_B and \widehat{p}_C and a Polytec OFV-5000 laser vibrometer. However,
384 when all the loudspeakers are inserted between the tube sections in the acoustic
385 metamaterial shown in Fig. 5, we can only use method 'BCD' (due to geometrical constraints
386 for the inclusions [[2,8]]). With this method, the acoustic impedance of each inclusion was
387 measured in-situ to estimate the model parameters of each loudspeaker through two
388 measurements with a least squares fitting method. The first measurement was performed
389 with the loudspeaker in open circuit to estimate the three parameters of the mechanical
390 impedance Z_{mj} . The second measurement was performed with the loudspeaker in short
391 circuit to estimate the force factor Bl . Then, every inclusion was measured again to verify
392 that we were able to reach the target values of the non-Hermitian and Hermitian acoustic
393 impedances. In Figs. 6b and 6d, we show at the frequency of interest the measured real and
394 imaginary parts of each normalized acoustic impedance Z_j/Z_0 (colour dots) in the complex
395 plane representation, in the Hermitian and non-Hermitian cases, respectively. These values
396 are compared with the theoretical values (grey dots) that fulfil Eq. (2). The measurements
397 confirm that the normalized acoustic impedances Z_j/Z_0 are very close to the theoretical
398 ones.

399

400 **Data availability**

401 The data that support the plots within this paper and other findings of this study are
402 available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

403

404 **Author contributions**

405 A.B., K.G.M., and S.R. developed the concept and theory of continuous constant amplitude
406 waves. E.R. and R.F. developed the discrete theory of constant amplitude waves and
407 performed the numerical simulations. E.R. formulated the acoustic impedance control
408 theory, developed the control technology used in the experiment, and performed the
409 experiment. H.L. supervised the experimental work. S.R. and R.F. initiated and supervised
410 the project. All authors discussed the results and contributed to writing the manuscript.

411

412

413

414 Acknowledgments

415 The authors would like to thank Prof. Mario Paolone and the Distributed Electrical Systems
416 Laboratory at Ecole Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne (EPFL) for lending us the National
417 Instrument CompactRIO-9068 platform for the experiment.

418

419 Figure Captions

420

421 **Figure 1: Concept of continuous constant-pressure waves. a)** Absolute value of the acoustic
422 pressure $p(x)$ (orange line) in a disordered Hermitian system when a wave is incident from
423 the left-hand side with normalized wavenumber $k = 2\pi/0.27$. Due to variations of the mass
424 density $\rho_R(x)$ (grey), the acoustic pressure wave is partially reflected and shows strong
425 variations inside the medium. **b)** Adding a tailored gain-loss distribution (red/green)
426 according to Eqs. (6,7) to the system shown in **a)**, the acoustic pressure field gets perfectly
427 transmitted and shows no pressure variations inside the entire scattering region.

428

429 **Figure 2: Discrete constant-pressure acoustic waves. a)** We consider an acoustic
430 transmission-line of characteristic impedances Z_L at the left end and Z_R at the right end,
431 loaded with n series impedances Z_j . Each imaginary part of Z_j is used to introduce Hermitian
432 disorder to the system, whereas the real part implements an additional discrete distribution
433 of loss or gain. The inclusions are connected by transfer matrices M_j , which may correspond
434 to additional disorder in general, but are assumed to be identical ($M_j = M_0$) in panels b-e,
435 with M_0 representing a simple Hermitian portion of transmission line with impedance Z_0 and
436 length d . We first consider the particular case of a Hermitian system ($n = 8$) with random
437 but purely imaginary impedances as shown in **b)**. **c)** The acoustic pressures p_j obtained from
438 our analytical model for the case in **b)** have non-uniform amplitudes. **d)** By adding loss and
439 gain, we create a non-Hermitian system whose non-Hermitian impedances have the same
440 imaginary parts as those in the case of the Hermitian system **b)**, but their real parts are now
441 different from zero. **e)** Tailoring these non-Hermitian additions results in an acoustic
442 scattering state with constant-amplitude pressure at each site p_j .

443 **Figure 3: Microscopic field dynamics in a non-Hermitian metamaterial supporting discrete**
444 **constant-pressure acoustic waves.** We performed full-wave 3D finite-element simulations

445 to investigate the microscopic behaviour of the pressure field in the Hermitian case of Fig.
446 2b-c (panel **a**) and the corresponding non-Hermitian case of Fig. 2d-e (panel **b**). The black
447 line is a snapshot in time of the acoustic pressure field, whereas the shadowed area shows
448 the range of its oscillations as time evolves. The vertical coloured lines represent the
449 locations of the impedances Z_j . **a**) The disordered Hermitian system transmits poorly and
450 the amplitude inside fluctuates strongly. **b**) Adding gain or loss to each inclusion counteracts
451 the effect of disorder and makes the system transparent. The discrete constant amplitude
452 property implies that the amplitude of the pressure reaches unity at each check point p_j ,
453 located directly in front of each inclusion (consistent with Fig. 2a). In panel **b**), the shadowed
454 grey area indeed touches the dashed red unity line right before each impedance.

455
456 **Figure 4: Adding gain and loss to fight scattering defects of any type.** **a**) We consider a pipe
457 filled with various strongly scattering obstacles that prevent efficient transmission of sound
458 (colour map shows pressure amplitude). We have introduced pipe section discontinuities, a
459 resonant side Helmholtz resonator, a hard wall obstacle, a labyrinthine path and porous
460 walls. When only the defects are considered, the pressure amplitude is fluctuating, and
461 reaches almost zero on the transmission side. **b**) After adding the discrete distribution of
462 gain and loss as prescribed by our theory, we obtain perfect sound transmission. The
463 pressure amplitudes are constant at discrete locations right in front of each added non-
464 Hermitian inclusion (controlled sites p_1 to p_7).

465
466 **Figure 5: Non-Hermitian metamaterial prototype supporting discrete constant-amplitude**
467 **pressure waves.** **a**) We built a one-dimensional acoustic metamaterial consisting of a 3.5 m-
468 long waveguide loaded with eight non-Hermitian acoustic inclusions ($8d = 2.75$ m). The
469 inclusions are electrodynamic loudspeakers, whose acoustic impedance can be conveniently
470 tailored electrically through a harmonic impedance control method. **b**) Schematic of the
471 experimental set-up showing the inclusions with the control, the sound source at the left
472 end, and the anechoic termination at the right end.

473
474 **Figure 6: Experimental proof of discrete constant-amplitude pressure waves.** We
475 performed two experiments: a reference one with a purely Hermitian disordered system
476 (panels b-c), and a second one on the same system with added gain and loss according to
477 the theory (panels d-e). Measured values are shown with colour lines and predicted values

478 with black lines. **a)** Schematic of the setup, serving as a column reference for the other
479 panels. **b)** Measured normalised acoustic impedances in the Hermitian case represented in
480 the complex plane. All impedances are imaginary, unambiguously demonstrating the
481 Hermitian origin of the disorder. **c)** Pressures measured at each site in the Hermitian case.
482 Pressures are represented as phasors, with the radius of the circle being proportional to
483 their amplitude, and the line segment showing their phase with respect to that of the
484 incident pressure. **d)** Measured impedances in the non-Hermitian case, highlighting the
485 addition of gain or loss to each inclusion. **e)** Pressures measured at each site in the non-
486 Hermitian case, demonstrating the discrete constant amplitude property in excellent
487 agreement with theoretical predictions.
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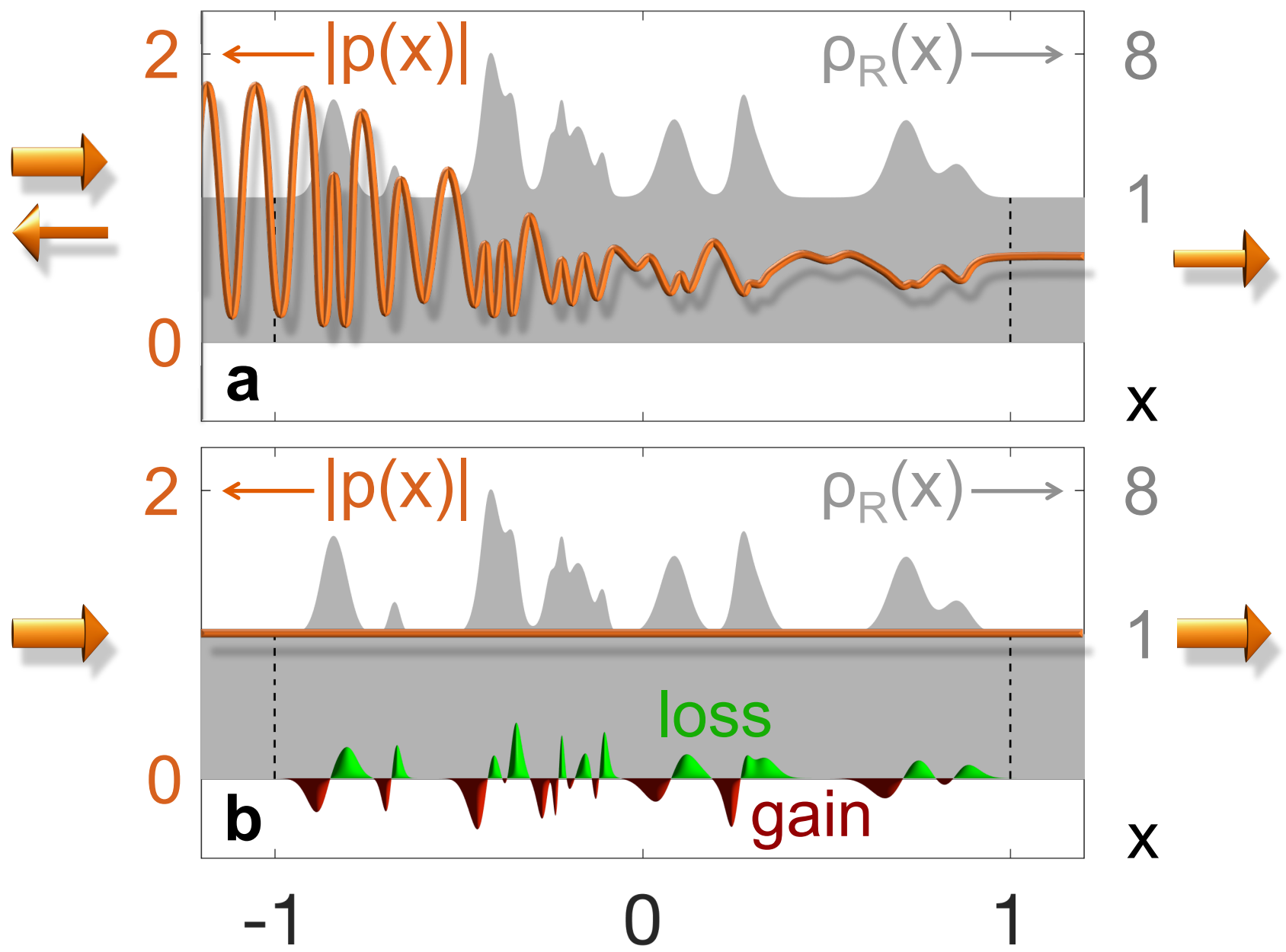
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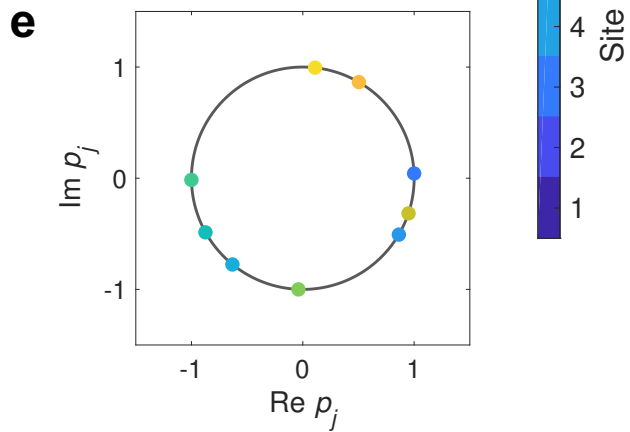
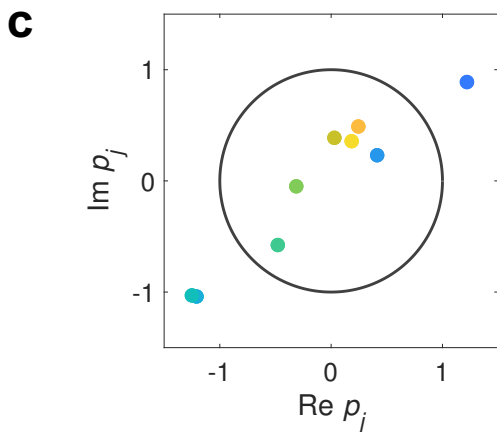
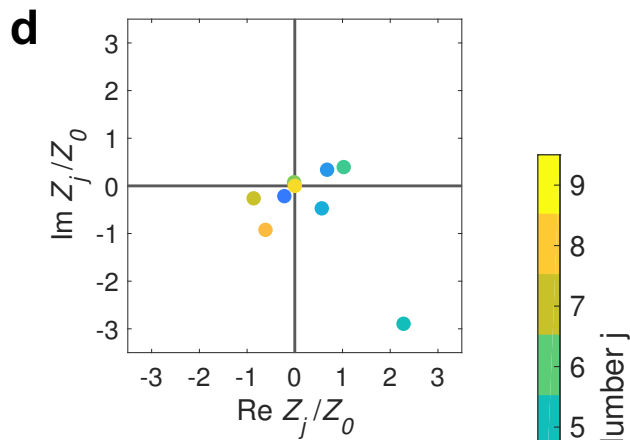
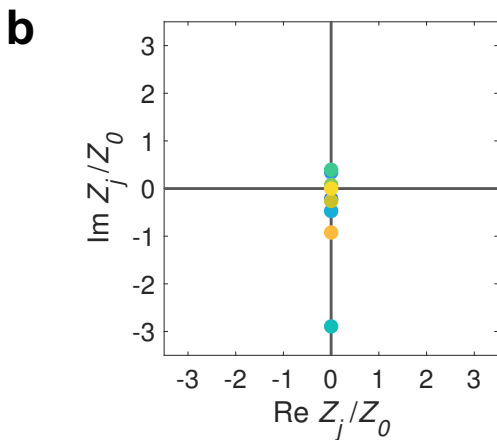
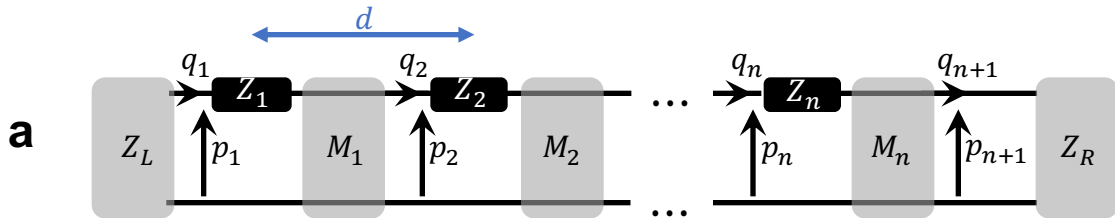
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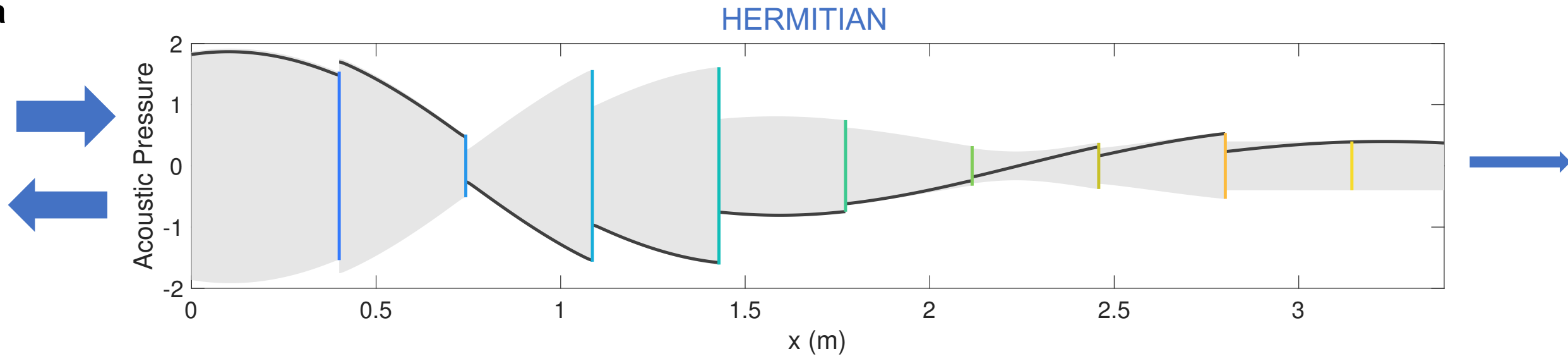
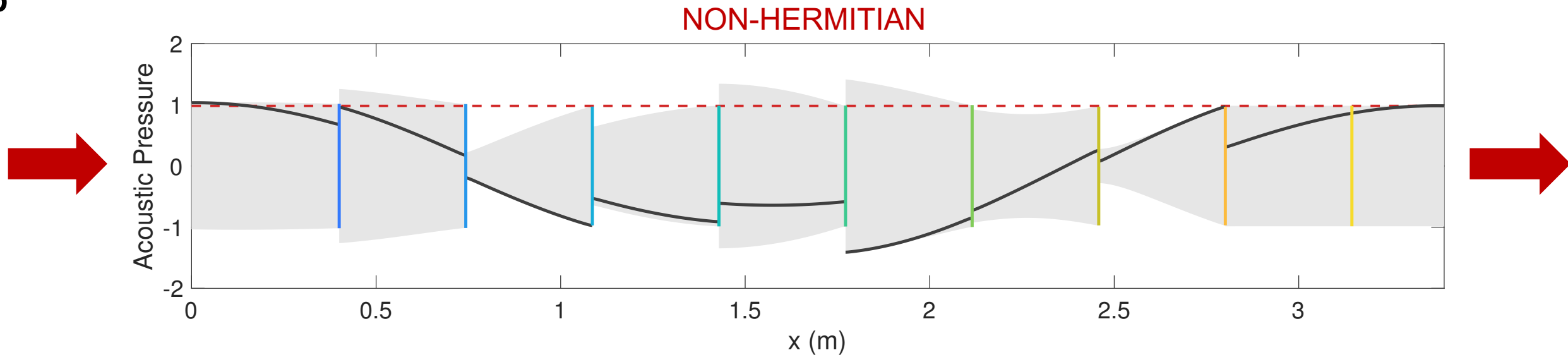
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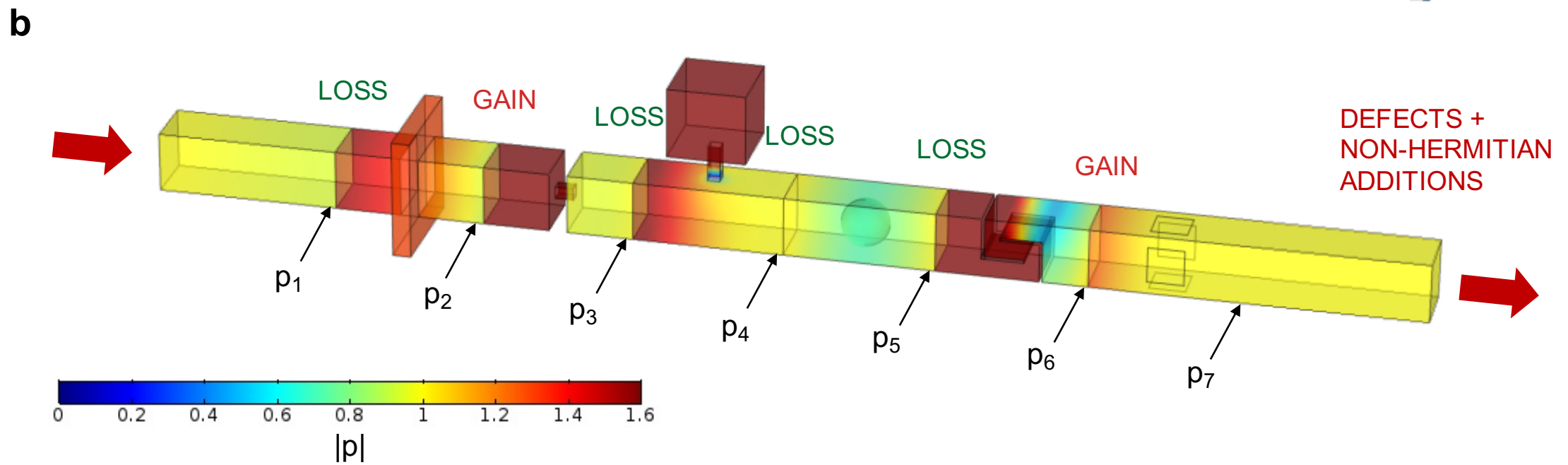
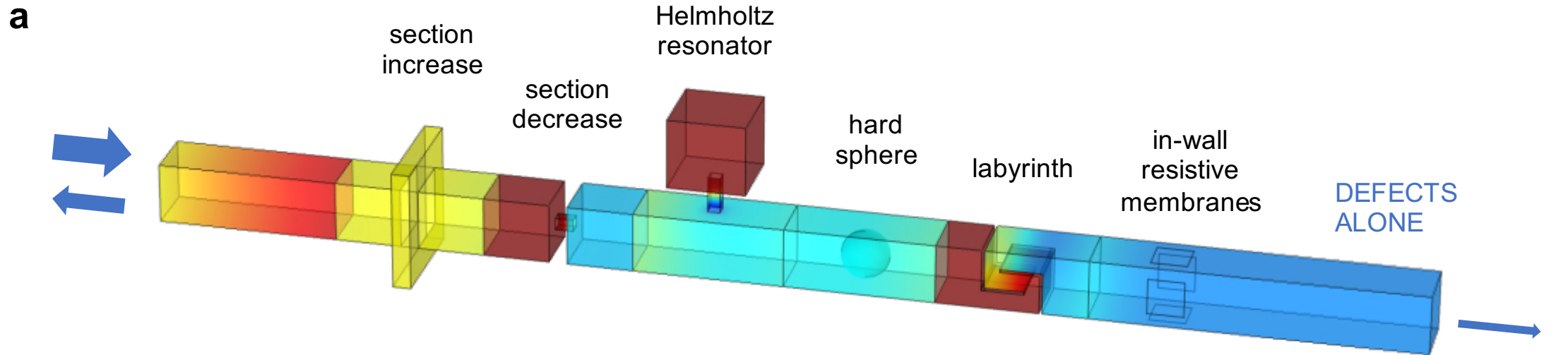


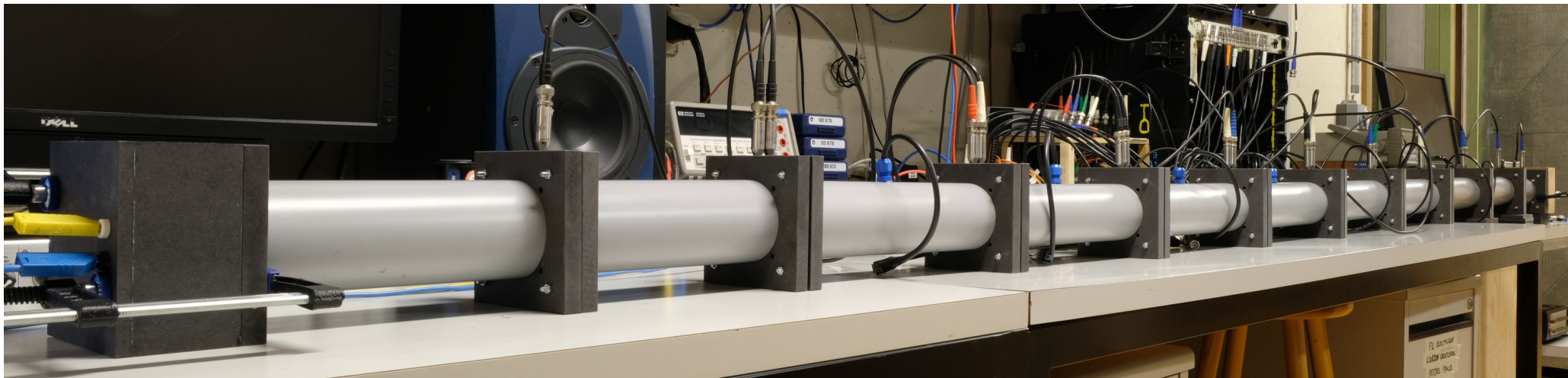


HERMITIAN

NON-HERMITIAN

a**b**



a**b**