Computational Astrophysics

Lecture 2: Gasdynamics

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Navier-Stokes equations for gasdynamics



$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} [\rho \mathbf{v}] + \nabla \cdot [\rho \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}] + \nabla p + \rho \nabla \phi = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} \phi \mathbf{v}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} [\rho E] + \nabla \cdot [(\rho E + p)\mathbf{v}] - \rho \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (D_{\epsilon} \nabla \rho \epsilon) + \Lambda$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} [\rho \epsilon] + \nabla \cdot [(\rho \epsilon + p)\mathbf{v}] - \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla p = \nabla \cdot (D_{\epsilon} \nabla \rho \epsilon) + \Lambda$$
$$\rho E \equiv \rho \epsilon + \frac{1}{2} \rho v^{2} + \rho \phi$$
$$\rho \epsilon = \frac{p}{\gamma - 1} = \frac{\rho k T}{(\gamma - 1)\mu}$$

Diffusive terms $\rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \underline{\text{Euler equations}}$

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Momentum Mass

Energy

Classes of gasdynamics solvers



Smoothed particle hydrodynamics (SPH)

Uses particles as moving interpolation centers

 $\rho(x,y)$

Eulerian grid-based hydrodynamics

Fluid quantities defined on a mesh

Finite difference (staggered mesh) or finite volume representation



Classification of partial differential equations

Consider the most general linear, second-order PDE with constant coefficients:

$$a\frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial x^2} + b\frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial xy} + c\frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial y^2} + d\frac{\partial q}{\partial x} + e\frac{\partial q}{\partial y} + fq = g$$

Such equations are classified in analogy with conic sections:

$$b^2 - 4ac \begin{cases} < 0 \\ = 0 \\ > 0 \end{cases}$$

⇒ elliptic equation (two complex characteristic speeds)
 ⇒ parabolic equation (one real characteristic speed)
 ⇒ hyperbolic equation (two real characteristic speeds)

The methods used to solve each class are quite different.

Elliptic equations Example: Poisson equation

 $\nabla^2 \phi = 4 \pi G \rho$

Parabolic equations Example: Diffusion equation

Hyperbolic equations Example: Wave equation

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \kappa \nabla^2 T$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \rho}{\partial t^2} - u^2 \frac{\partial^2 \rho}{\partial x^2} = 0$$

Initial and boundary conditions



Initial-value problems Parabolic Hyperbolic

<u>Boundary-value problems</u> Elliptic

Discretization of PDEs

Finite-difference methods

Work with values of the solution at a number of specified points:

$$q_{ij} \equiv q(x_i, y_j)$$

$$x_i = i\Delta x \qquad i = 0...N_x$$

$$y_j = j\Delta y \qquad j = 0...N_y$$

Finite-volume methods

Work with cell averages of the solution:

$$q_{ij} \equiv \frac{1}{\Delta x \Delta y} \int_{x_{i-1/2}}^{x_{i+1/2}} \int_{y_{j-1/2}}^{y_{j+1/2}} q(x, y) dx dy$$
$$x_{i} = \left(i + \frac{1}{2}\right) \Delta x \qquad i = 0 \dots N_{x} - 1$$
$$y_{j} = \left(j + \frac{1}{2}\right) \Delta y \qquad j = 0 \dots N_{y} - 1$$



Finite volume methods – conservation form

We can write a general conservation law in the form

 $\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{F}(q, t) = 0$

For example, for the Euler equations we have

$$q = \begin{cases} \rho & \rho u_{x} & \rho u_{y} & \rho u_{z} \\ \rho u_{x} & \rho u_{y} & \rho u_{x} u_{y} & \rho u_{x} u_{z} \\ \rho u_{z} & \rho u_{z} & \rho u_{z} u_{z} & \rho u_{y} u_{z} \\ \rho E & \rho E \\ \end{cases} \begin{cases} \rho u_{x} & \rho u_{y} & \rho u_{y} u_{y} & \rho u_{y} u_{z} \\ \rho u_{x} u_{z} & \rho u_{y} u_{z} & \rho u_{z}^{2} + P \\ (\rho E + P) u_{x} & (\rho E + P) u_{y} & (\rho E + P) u_{z} \end{cases}$$

We can integrate any one of these equations over a cell volume to obtain

$$\frac{\partial q_{ijk}}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{\Delta x} \Big[\mathbf{F}_{i+1/2, jk} - \mathbf{F}_{i-1/2, jk} \Big] + \frac{1}{\Delta y} \Big[\mathbf{F}_{i, j+1/2, k} - \mathbf{F}_{i, j-1/2, k} \Big] + \frac{1}{\Delta z} \Big[\mathbf{F}_{i, j, k+1/2} - \mathbf{F}_{i, j, k-1/2} \Big] = 0$$

where q_{ijk} is a finite-volume quantity. The function $F_{i+1/2,jk}$ is the average of F(q) over the face between cells ijk and i+1,jk:

$$\boldsymbol{F}_{i+1/2, jk}(t) = \frac{1}{\Delta y \Delta z} \int_{y_{j-1/2}}^{y_{j+1/2}} \int_{z_{k-1/2}}^{z_{k+1/2}} \boldsymbol{F}(q, t) \, dy \, dz$$

Properties of numerical methods

Consistency

Define the local truncation error of a method by substituting a Taylor expansion for each of the terms in a difference equation. If the lowest-order error terms are of order $O(\Delta x^p + \Delta t^p)$, the difference operator is said to be locally *p*th-order.

If the local truncation error goes to zero as Δx , $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, the method is consistent.

Stability

A method is stable if, as Δx and Δt are reduced, the method produces a result that tends toward some finite limit.

Convergence

If the global error of a solution (defined in some fashion) goes to zero as fast as Δx^p + Δt^p , the method is *p*th-order convergent.

Lax Equivalence Theorem: if and only if a method is consistent and stable, it is convergent.

Explicit vs. implicit methods

How to handle time integration? Two first-order methods:

 $\frac{q_{ijk}^{n+1} - q_{ijk}^{n}}{\Delta t} = -\frac{1}{\Delta x} \left[\boldsymbol{F}_{i+1/2, jk}^{n} - \boldsymbol{F}_{i-1/2, jk}^{n} \right] \quad \text{Explicit (FTCS)} - \text{solve directly}$

 $\frac{q_{ijk}^{n+1} - q_{ijk}^{n}}{\Delta t} = -\frac{1}{\Delta x} \left[F_{i+1/2, jk}^{n+1} - F_{i-1/2, jk}^{n+1} \right]$ Implicit (BTCS) – solve by matrix inversion

For numerical stability, explicit methods require CFL criterion:

$$\frac{F_{ijk}^{n}\Delta t}{q_{ijk}^{n}\Delta x} < \sigma \qquad \text{for advection: } \left|\frac{u\Delta t}{\Delta x}\right| < \sigma$$

 $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$

where $\sigma \sim$ 1. Implicit methods are unconditionally stable.



"Classical" methods

Simplest differencing schemes do poorly at flow discontinuities. Consider scalar advection equation

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} = 0, \ u > 0$$

Upwind $(O(\Delta t))$:

$$\rho_i^{n+1} = \rho_i^n - \frac{u\Delta t}{\Delta x} \left(\rho_i^n - \rho_{i-1}^n\right)$$



Lax-Wendroff ($O(\Delta t^2)$):

$$\rho_{i}^{n+1} = \rho_{i}^{n} - \frac{u\Delta t}{2\Delta x} \left(\rho_{i+1}^{n} - \rho_{i-1}^{n}\right) + \frac{u^{2}\Delta t^{2}}{2\Delta x^{2}} \left(\rho_{i+1}^{n} - 2\rho_{i}^{n} + \rho_{i-1}^{n}\right)$$

Odd-order methods \rightarrow diffusive errors Even-order methods \rightarrow dispersive errors



Godunov methods

Strategy:

Treat the solution as piecewise polynomial:



- Solve the time evolution over $[t_n, t_{n+1}]$ for this piecewise function exactly.
- The exact solution can then be used to produce fluxes.

Varieties:

- Piecewise constant (Godunov's method, Godunov 1950)
- Piecewise linear (e.g., MUSCL, van Leer 1979)
- Piecewise parabolic (e.g., PPM, Colella & Woodward 1984)

The Riemann problem

Initial conditions: arbitrary discontinuity



Admissible solutions: self-similar; three nonlinear waves



Solving the Riemann problem

Two states on either side of a nonlinear wave are connected by the *Hugoniot adiabat* (for shocks) or the *integral curve* of the appropriate characteristic (for rarefactions)



Generalization to higher order in x and t



MUSCL = Monotonic Upstream-centered Scheme for Conservation Laws

 $\rho_{\rm L}, u_{\rm L}, P_{\rm L}, \delta \rho_{\rm L}, \delta u_{\rm L}, \delta P_{\rm L}$ Achieves second-order time accuracy by estimating input states to Riemann problems at time $t_{n+1/2}$



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Interpolation



Unless we "flatten" the interpolating polynomial at discontinuities, we will introduce oscillations at these locations.

 X_{i+1}

 χ_{i+2}

 X_{i}

q(x)

X

We only want to do this when we have to...

 X_{i-2}

 \boldsymbol{x}_{i-1}

 X_{i-3}

Piecewise parabolic method (PPM)

Colella & Woodward (1984)

- Piecewise parabolic interpolants
- MUSCL approach to time integration
- Slope limiting and (weak) artificial viscosity at strong shocks
- Contact steepening

Example: interaction of two strong blast waves (Woodward & Colella 1984) computed using FLASH (Fryxell et al. 2000)





Density (ø)

<u>Operator splitting (fractional-step method)</u>

Suppose we have a difference operator *D* with truncation error $O(\Delta t)$ or better that can be written

$$D = D_1 + D_2 + D_3$$

Then

 $D[q] = D_1[\overline{D_2[D_3[q]]]} + O(\Delta t)$

If *D* is $O(\Delta t^2)$, we can do better by symmetrizing (Strang splitting): $D[q] = D_1^{1/2} [D_2^{1/2} [D_3^{1/2} [D_3^{1/2} [D_2^{1/2} [D_1^{1/2} [q]]]]] + O(\Delta t^2)$ Apply each operator for $\frac{1}{2} \Delta t$. Operators can be • Different directions: $D_1 = \frac{\partial \rho u_x}{\partial x}, D_2 = \frac{\partial \rho u_x}{\partial y}, D_3 = \frac{\partial \rho u_x}{\partial z}$ • Different physics: $D_1 = \frac{\partial \rho u}{\partial x}, D_2 = v \frac{\partial^2 \rho u}{\partial x^2}, D_3 = \Lambda(\rho)$

Boundary conditions for CFD – practicalities

Typically we establish *ghost cells* around the boundary of our domain and set their values at the beginning of each timestep, independent of the integration scheme. Common types of boundary condition include:

Periodic boundaries

Here we require that all components of the solution (ρ , P, \mathbf{u} , etc.) be periodic functions of the computational box. So we set

We include one ghost cell on each side for each point in our stencil on that side. For example: upwind and Lax-Wendroff require one ghost cell on each side (three-point stencil).

Boundary conditions – 2

Outflow boundaries

Here we wish to allow material to flow out of the grid, but not to flow onto the grid. For supersonic flows we can set all gradients to zero on the boundary:

$$\begin{split} \rho_{-1} &= \rho_{0} \qquad P_{-1} = P_{0} \qquad u_{x,-1} = u_{x,0} \qquad u_{y,-1} = u_{y,0} \qquad u_{z,-1} = u_{z,0} \\ \rho_{N+1} &= \rho_{N} \qquad P_{N+1} = P_{N} \qquad u_{x,N+1} = u_{x,N} \qquad u_{y,N+1} = u_{y,N} \qquad u_{z,N+1} = u_{z,N} \\ \cdots \end{split}$$

For subsonic flows this is usually not sufficient: waves can be reflected from the boundary. Characteristic-tracing methods are sometimes used in this case.

Reflecting boundaries

These are used for solid surfaces and symmetry axes. The Euler equations preserve reflection symmetry, so reflect density, pressure, and parallel velocity as even functions and velocity normal to the surfaces as an odd function.

$$u_{x0} = u_{xN} = 0$$

$$\rho_{-1} = \rho_{1} \qquad P_{-1} = P_{1} \qquad u_{x,-1} = -u_{x,1} \qquad u_{y,-1} = u_{y,1} \qquad u_{z,-1} = u_{z,1}$$

$$\rho_{N+1} = \rho_{N-1} \qquad P_{N+1} = P_{N-1} \qquad u_{x,N+1} = -u_{x,N-1} \qquad u_{y,N+1} = u_{y,N-1} \qquad u_{z,N+1} = u_{z,N-1}$$

The need for mesh refinement

Ideally we would cover the Universe with a uniform mesh:

- Numerical diffusivity/resistivity constant
- Properties mathematically simple
- Easy to parallelize (domain decomposition)

But this would be a colossal waste of resources!

For explicit hydro schemes in 3D,

Storage $\propto N^3$ Cost $\propto N^4$

If we wanted to resolve interstellar distances in a cosmological volume, we would need

$$\begin{vmatrix} L \sim 1 & \text{Gpc} \\ \Delta \sim 1 & \text{pc} \end{vmatrix} \Rightarrow N \sim 10^9$$



We would need 10^{28} bytes per variable... a computer requiring 1 ns to update each zone would take 3×10^{29} yr for one timestep! And most of it would be voids...

Adaptive mesh types

Types of mesh refinement

• *r* refinement – move or stretch the mesh points

Nonuniform meshes Lagrangian meshes Arbitrary Lagrangian-Eulerian (ALE)

 $\bullet p$ refinement – adjust the order of the method

Discontinuous Galerkin Spectral elements

• h refinement – change the mesh spacing

Nested grids Adaptive mesh refinement (AMR) Finite elements







Block-structured adaptive mesh refinement

Berger & Oliger (1984) Berger & Colella (1989)

- Hierarchy of structured meshes (patches)
- Individual patches:
 - Different sizes
 - Different numbers of zones
 - Arbitrary integer resolution increment from one level to next
 - Patches can overlap



Norman & Bryan (1998)

Oct-tree AMR PARAMESH (MacNeice et al. 2000)



- Each block contains n^d zones in d dimensions
- Blocks stored in 2^d-tree data structure
- Factor of 2 refinement per level
- Blocks assigned indices via space-filling curve

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Parallel decomposition

When implementing AMR on a parallel computer, commonly one uses a *space-filling curve* to assign a 1D ordering to the 2D/3D blocks on different levels of refinement



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Initializing AMR calculations (non-cosmological)

Different from initializing a uniform mesh:

- Multiple blocks or patches of zones
- Don't know block structure in advance (depends on solution!)

Initialization is done one block/patch at a time.

- 1. We start by initializing the coarsest block.
- 2. Decide where to refine; create new blocks.
- 3. Redistribute blocks among processors if necessary.
- 4. Initialize solution on the new blocks (rather than interpolating from coarse blocks as during the run).
- 5. Go to 2; if no new blocks required, we are done.

Be careful – desired features may not be resolvable on the coarsest mesh, so expected refinements might not occur.

- Use subzone averaging to make coarse zones reflect correct zone averages
- Force refinement in regions where initial conditions contain fine features



Basic AMR hydro algorithm – global timestep

1. Update boundary information.

- a) Blocks restrict interior information to parent blocks
- b) Blocks trade information with neighbors on same refinement level
- c) Blocks with external boundaries set those values explicitly
- d) Fine blocks at fine-coarse boundaries set boundary values by interpolation from parents
- 2. Apply hydrodynamics operator to each block, treating it as independent.
 - a) Compute flux for each cell interface on each block
 - b) Override coarse boundary fluxes at coarse-fine interfaces with fine fluxes
 - c) Difference fluxes to perform time update



AMR boundary conditions



Basic AMR hydro algorithm – global timestep

3. Update mesh refinement.

a) For each block, compute a figure of merit that will determine whether the block should be refined or derefined ("refinement marking")

b) For each block:

- i) If it is to be refined, create child blocks and set their solution information by interpolating from the parent
- ii) If it is to be derefined, restrict solution information to its parent block, then free up the memory allocated to the block to be derefined
- c) Compute block indices using space-filling curve
- d) Redistribute blocks by communication among processors so that all processors have about the same amount of work to do during the next step

Refinement criteria

Geometrical

Refine blocks containing certain points – useful for doing spherically symmetric problems on Cartesian grids (refine center and edge of object)

Second derivative of density or temperature

Used to capture shocks. Compute scaled second derivative for each zone after Löhner (1987):

$$E_{i} \equiv \frac{|u_{i+1} - 2u_{i} + u_{i-1}|}{|u_{i+1} - u_{i}| + |u_{i} - u_{i-1}| + \epsilon (|u_{i+1}| + 2|u_{i}| + |u_{i-1}|)}$$



Refine block if

 $\max_{\text{block}} E_i > C_1$ Derefine block if

Typical values
$$C_1 = 0.8$$
,
 $C_2 = 0.2, \epsilon = 0.01$



Refinement criteria

Magnitude of density

Refine blocks to different levels depending on the ratio of their maximum 1 densities to some reference density.

Truncation error estimate

Use Richardson extrapolation of solution on coarser grids to estimate mesh spacing required for a given level of error.

Physical criteria

Keep instabilities resolved by computing local critical wavelengths λ_{crit} and asking whether $\lambda_{crit} < \Delta x$. *Example*: Truelove et al. (1997) criterion for Jeans-unstable fluid:

$$\Delta x < 0.25 \lambda_J, \quad \lambda_J \equiv c_s \left(\frac{\pi}{G\rho}\right)^{1/2}$$

