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Paper:

Nguyen, H., Nguyen, V., Price, M. & Hassan, O. (2016). A feature-based mesh adaptation for the unsteady high speed compressible flows in complex three-dimensional domains. *Applied Mathematical Modelling*, 40(3), 1728-1740.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.apm.2015.08.006>

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Accepted Manuscript

A Feature-Based Mesh Adaptation for the Unsteady High Speed Compressible Flows in Complex Three-Dimensional Domainss

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PII: S0307-904X(15)00486-2
DOI: [10.1016/j.apm.2015.08.006](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apm.2015.08.006)
Reference: APM 10684

To appear in: *Applied Mathematical Modelling*

Received date: 7 December 2012
Revised date: 24 July 2015
Accepted date: 26 August 2015

Please cite this article as: Hoang-Huy Nguyen, Vinh-Tan Nguyen, Matthew Price, Oubay Hassan, A Feature-Based Mesh Adaptation for the Unsteady High Speed Compressible Flows in Complex Three-Dimensional Domainss, *Applied Mathematical Modelling* (2015), doi: [10.1016/j.apm.2015.08.006](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apm.2015.08.006)

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Highlight

- We proposed a featured based mesh adaptation for simulations of compressible flows.
- Adaptivity is done locally by identifying holes and remesh those local regions.
- Local adaptivity is robust and efficient for complex domains with curved boundaries.
- Mesh adaptation improves solution resolutions, especially for strong shocks.
- The adaptation process takes small percentage of run times for unsteady simulations.

A Feature-Based Mesh Adaptation for the Unsteady High Speed Compressible Flows in Complex Three-Dimensional Domains

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Abstract

We propose an unstructured mesh adaptation approach for unsteady high speed compressible Navier-Stokes applications involving blasts and explosions with the presence of strong shock waves propagating in three dimensional complex domains. The idea is to identify the locations of critical physics locally and then re-mesh these regions based on solution derived metrics. The approach ensures both geometry fidelity and mesh validity, especially for areas near complex geometries, a task that is always a challenge in mesh adaptation. The proposed adaptivity is applied for simulations of blast wave propagations and compared with available data in literature. The results show that the proposed method is fully robust and efficient for computational fluid dynamics (CFD) problems in complex three-dimensional domains.

Keywords: mesh adaptation, feature-based, re-meshing, unstructured grids, boundary-conforming, unsteady flows.

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1 1. Introduction

2 Modern CFD has the ability to explore problems that are more com-
3 plex than ever before, partly because of more powerful computing resources.
4 However, the recent evidence suggests that there is still significant unrelia-
5 bility in the numerical predictions made by current CFD codes for the same
6 problem. A strong relation between solution quality and mesh topology has
7 been shown, further indicating that current mesh design practices are not
8 sufficient [6]. Due to the fundamental impact of mesh on the approxima-
9 tion of functions and PDE solutions, mesh adaptation was the focus of many
10 researchers during the last two decades. There are four general approaches
11 of mesh refinement methods. The first approach is p -adaptation, where the
12 interpolation order is locally modified and does not require a new mesh to
13 be generated. While p -adaptation can achieve excellent error convergence for
14 smooth flows, difficulties arise near singularities or discontinuities. This con-
15 trasts with the other popular adaptation method, h -adaptation, where the
16 local element size is modified from the current mesh. When combined with
17 unstructured and anisotropic mesh generation capabilities, h -adaptation can
18 improve mesh efficiency in boundary layers, wakes, shocks, etc. However,
19 the disadvantage of h -adaptation is that it could experience large jumps in
20 mesh size and require mesh regeneration. This potentially reduces the effec-
21 tiveness and robustness of the approach. A related method, r -adaptation,
22 is a simpler variation of h -adaptation. Instead of generating a new mesh,
23 r -adaptation moves node locations without changing the mesh topology to
24 improve the solution accuracy. The final approach is hp -adaptation, where

25 adjustments in mesh size and interpolation order are combined. In this set-
26 ting, h -adaptation is employed for non-smooth flow regions in the vicinity of
27 singularities, and p -adaptation is used in smooth flow regions. Sometimes
28 the choice of adaptation strategy in a particular element (h and/or p) is un-
29 clear and criteria must be developed to aid that decision. It should be noted
30 that for mesh refinement methods, it is difficult to guarantee the curvature
31 of complex geometries. Refining and coarsening of regions near the domain
32 boundaries usually generate problems [6].

33 In an effort to improve the robustness and automation of mesh adapta-
34 tion, this paper proposes an adaptive *re-meshing* method that can be used
35 for variety of problems in CFD and removes the meshing bottleneck which
36 is common to boundary-conforming methods. It should be noted that this
37 method is feature driven adaptivity and is different to mesh adaptation in
38 transient flows involving moving boundaries as were proposed by Löhner [10];
39 Peraire et al. [15]; Löhner and Baum [11]; Morgan et al. [13]; Hassan et al.
40 [8], etc. The present mesh adaptation is fundamentally different from goal-
41 oriented approach used for unsteady flow simulations [2] in which optimal
42 meshes are generated from a given output functional. [Here an isotropic mesh](#)
43 [adaptation based on solution features is proposed for unsteady simulations.](#)
44 [Adopting isotropic mesh adaptation certainly makes the approach more ro-](#)
45 [bust than anisotropic ones in which boundary recovery phase may fail in the](#)
46 [process of adaptation.](#) Another difference of the proposed approach is that it
47 does not use strategies such as edge split, edge collapse, edge swap, face swap,
48 point move, etc as were employed in mesh modifications. Instead, it defines
49 the holes locally based on an feature-based indicator and re-meshes these re-

50 gions independently using surface and volume mesh generators. The surface
 51 meshes are performed using advancing front algorithm and volume meshes
 52 are based on Delaunay triangulation. The proposed re-meshing process is
 53 fully automatic without users intervention in run-time manner provided that
 54 initial surface and volume mesh can be generated from input geometries. In
 55 addition, it can perform mesh adaptation robustly and effectively in simula-
 56 tion run-time for complex configurations, especially for domains with curved
 57 boundaries. The numerical examples show that the use of the proposed
 58 adaptation strategy in three dimensions offers a great potential in having
 59 low cost CFD simulations with high quality mesh, resulting in more accurate
 60 solutions.

61 2. Problem Statement

62 Considering unsteady inviscid compressible flows governed by the time-
 63 dependent, Euler equations on a three-dimensional Cartesian domain $\Omega \subset$
 64 \mathbb{R}^3 , with surface $\partial\Omega$, it can be expressed in integral form as

$$\int_{\Omega} \frac{\partial \mathbf{U}}{\partial t} d\mathbf{x} + \int_{\partial\Omega} \mathbf{F}_j n_j d\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}, \quad (1)$$

65 where the conventional summation is employed and n_j is the outward unit
 66 normal vector to $\partial\Omega$. The unknown vector of the conservative variables,
 67 inviscid and viscous flux tensors are given by

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho \\ \rho u_1 \\ \rho u_2 \\ \rho u_3 \\ \rho \epsilon \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{F}_j = \begin{pmatrix} \rho u_j \\ \rho u_1 u_j + p \delta_{1j} \\ \rho u_2 u_j + p \delta_{2j} \\ \rho u_3 u_j + p \delta_{3j} \\ u_j (\rho \epsilon + p) \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2)$$

68 Here ρ denotes the fluid density, u_i the i 'th component of the velocity vector
 69 and ϵ the specific total energy. Fluid is considered as perfect gas with ideal
 70 equation of state $p = \rho RT$ and $\epsilon = c_v T + \frac{1}{2} u_k u_k$ where R is the real gas
 71 constant and $c_v = c_p - R$ is the specific heat at constant volume. In this
 72 expression, c_p is the specific heat at constant pressure. In this work, the ratio
 73 of the specific heats, $\gamma = \frac{c_p}{c_v}$ is set to $\gamma = 1.4$ for air at standard conditions.

74 Flow unsteady conditions are solved by first discretization of the domain
 75 into a computational unstructured grid as a set of non overlapping tetrahedral
 76 elements. The governing equations are then solved on the discrete domain
 77 using second order cell based vertex centered finite volume approach with
 78 explicit time stepping scheme. For better capturing of flow features, solution
 79 based adaptivity is developed and employed to adjust computational grids.
 80 In subsequent sections, these techniques will be discussed in details.

81 **3. Unstructured Mesh Generation**

82 The computational domain Ω is subdivided into a set of non-overlapping
 83 tetrahedral elements using a unstructured mesh generation process. In this
 84 section, the methods for generating an unstructured grid are briefly summa-
 85 rized. In an unstructured mesh, the number of points and elements which are
 86 neighbours to an interior point is not kept constant throughout the domain.
 87 The mesh algorithm can handle arbitrary geometries in a fully automatic
 88 manner and provide control over the spatial mesh spacing throughout the
 89 domain. Therefore, the input data can be reduced to a geometric represen-
 90 tation of the domain based on computer-aided design (CAD) defined geome-
 91 tries. The geometrical definition (or domain boundaries) contains curve and

92 surface components. The curve components are the curvature continuous
 93 composite cubic splines. Surface components are represented by means of a
 94 rectangular network of points.

95 3.1. Background mesh and source distribution

96 Control over the mesh characteristics is obtained by the specification of
 97 a spatial distribution of mesh parameters. A background mesh as well as
 98 point, line and planar sources can be used to define the control function that
 99 specifies the distribution of the mesh spacings [17].

100 The background mesh employed must cover the region to be discretized.
 101 In the generation of an initial mesh, the background mesh usually consist of
 102 a small number of elements. For instance, a background mesh consisting of a
 103 single element can be used to impose a linearly varying or a constant spacing
 104 through the computational domain.

105 For complex geometries, the use of a distribution of sources ensures the
 106 desired mesh size at specific regions in the computational domain. In this
 107 approach, an isotropic spatial distribution of element size is specified as a
 108 function of the distance from the point of interest to a 'source'. The source
 109 may take the form of a point, a line or a triangle. The form adopted for the
 110 function is

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} \delta_1 & \text{if } x \leq x_c \\ \delta_1 e^{\left| \frac{x-x_c}{D-x_c} \right| \log 2} & \text{if } x \geq x_c \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

111 The quantities δ_1 , D , and x_c denote user-specified values which can be
 112 customized to control the form of $\delta(x)$. The final spacing at a point in the
 113 domain is computed as the minimum of the background mesh and sources.

114 3.2. Surface triangulation

115 The surface mesh generator utilises the concept of a generation front [12];
116 [16]. At the start of the process the initial front consists of the sequence of
117 straight line segments which connect consecutive boundary nodes. A side is
118 selected from the front and a triangular element is generated. The front is a
119 dynamic data structure which changes continuously. During the generation
120 process, any straight line segment which is available to form an element side
121 is termed active, whereas any segment which is no longer active is removed
122 from the front. After a triangle has been generated, the front is updated and
123 the generation proceeds until the front is empty.

124 3.3. Delaunay mesh generator

125 In this work, we employed the efficient Delaunay triangulation algorithm
126 developed by Weatherill and Hassan [21] which is based on the in-circle crite-
127 rion [4]. This method, given a set of points and connectivity information for
128 the boundary points, performs a triangulation of the points, automatically
129 creates points in the interior of the domain and ensures that the bounding
130 surface of the domain is contained in the triangulation.

131 4. Unstructured Grid Compressible Flow Solver

132 In this paper, we employed an explicit flow solver for compressible flows
133 on unstructured grids [14] to discretize the governing equations (Eq. 1) on
134 unstructured grids. The unstructured grid flow solver is constructed from an
135 edge-based cell-centre finite volume approach with compact Harten-Lax-van
136 Leer (HLLC) flux scheme. The HLLC scheme is appended by second or-
137 der reconstruction of Riemann states thus obtaining second order accuracy.

138 As the flows develop strong shock waves, various slope limiters were imple-
 139 mented to stabilize solutions and overcome instabilities due to the high order
 140 approximation. Summary of the discretization scheme is summarized in the
 141 following sections.

142 4.1. Edge-based Vertex-centre Finite Volume Spatial Discretization

143 The discretisation of Eq. (1) is accomplished using a cell vertex finite
 144 volume procedure. The computational domain Ω is subdivided into a set
 145 of non-overlapping tetrahedral elements using a Delaunay mesh generation
 146 process with automatic point creation described in the previous section. To
 147 enable the implementation of a cell vertex finite volume solution approach, a
 148 median dual mesh is constructed by connecting edge midpoints, element cen-
 149 troids and face centroids such that only one node is present in each control
 150 volume. The edge coefficients for internal and boundary edges are calcu-
 151 lated for every edge using the dual mesh segment associated with the edge
 152 connecting point I and J as follows,

$$C_j^{IJ} \equiv n_j^{IJ} = \sum_{K \in \Gamma_{IJ}^K} A_{\Gamma_I^K} n_j^{\Gamma_I^K} \quad (4)$$

$$D_j^{IJ} = \sum_{K \in \Gamma_{IJ}^B} A_{\Gamma_I^K} n_j^{\Gamma_I^K}. \quad (5)$$

153 In the expression (4), $A_{\Gamma_I^K}$ is the area of facet Γ_I^K and $n_j^{\Gamma_I^K}$ is the outward
 154 unit normal vector of the facet from the viewpoint of node I. And Γ_{IJ}^B is the
 155 set of dual mesh facets on the computational boundary touching the edge
 156 between nodes I and J .

157 The contribution of the inviscid flux over the control volume surface for

158 node I is then computed as

$$\int_{\partial\Omega_I} F_{ij} n_j d\mathbf{x} \approx \sum_{J \in \Lambda_I} \frac{C_j^{IJ}}{2} \mathcal{F}^{IJ} + \sum_{J \in \Lambda_I^B} D_j^{IJ} \mathcal{F}^I \quad (6)$$

159 where Λ_I denotes the set of nodes connected to node I by an edge and Λ_I^B
 160 denotes the set of nodes connected to node I by an edge on the computational
 161 boundary. \mathcal{F}^{IJ} is the inviscid numerical flux in IJ direction obtained from
 162 solving local Riemann problems at the facets of node I 's control volume.
 163 There are a number of ways for computation of numerical fluxes, in this
 164 work, for high speed compressible flow the compact Harten-Lax-van Leer
 165 (HLLC) flux scheme [14] is employed. The HLLC scheme is appended by
 166 second order reconstruction of Riemann states thus obtaining second order
 167 accuracy. As the flows develop strong shock waves, various slope limiters
 168 were implemented to stabilize solutions and overcome instabilities due to the
 169 high order approximation.

170 4.2. Time Discretization

When the terms in Eq. (1) is approximated by the above finite volume discretization scheme, the final form of discrete equations is written as

$$\frac{d\mathbf{U}_h(t)}{dt} = \mathbf{R}_h(\mathbf{U}_h, t), \quad (7)$$

where \mathbf{U}_h is the discrete solution vector and \mathbf{R}_h is the residual vector representing FV discretization of the inviscid fluxes,

$$\mathbf{R}_h(\mathbf{U}_h, t) = \sum_{J \in \Lambda_I} C^{IJ} \mathcal{F}^{IJ} + \sum_{J \in \Gamma_I^B} D^{IJ} \mathcal{F}^I \quad (8)$$

The time derivative term is discretized using finite difference at time step n and the residual term is evaluated from solutions at time step n and

possibly previous time steps. In this work, the following explicit K^{th} order Runge-Kutta time discretization can be used for solving Eq. (7)

$$\mathbf{W}_h^{n(i)} = \sum_{l=0}^{i-1} \alpha_{il} \mathbf{W}_h^{n(l)} + \beta_{il} \Delta t^n \mathbf{R}_h(\mathbf{U}_h^{n(l)}), \quad i = 1, \dots, K \quad (9)$$

171 where $\mathbf{W}_h^{n(0)} = \mathbf{W}_h^n$ and $\mathbf{W}_h^{n+1} = \mathbf{W}_h^{n(K)}$. The coefficients are required to
 172 satisfy some conditions such that the scheme is satisfied to be total variation
 173 diminishing (TVD). A class of TVD Runge-Kutta schemes is presented by
 174 [19] and proven to be suitable for solving the hyperbolic conservation laws
 175 with stable spatial discretization.

176 5. Local Mesh Adaptation

177 In solving (unsteady) problems involving high-speed compressible flows,
 178 the location of critical physics is often not known ahead of time. These local-
 179 ized regions will generally move through the computational domain and may
 180 sweep across large areas. The mesh will thus need to be adapted to allow
 181 for accurate tracking of high-gradient features in the solution. However, it is
 182 not recommended to re-mesh the whole computational domain. This is not
 183 only computationally expensive but may also result in reduced accuracy, due
 184 to the inherent numerical diffusion that occurs when interpolating data from
 185 old grid to new grid. Frey and Alauzet [7] used mesh modification to gener-
 186 ate an adapted mesh to capture the transient phenomena. In their approach,
 187 the ingredients to achieve this goal typically include mesh enrichment, mesh
 188 coarsening and local mesh optimization procedures. The local mesh modifi-
 189 cations operators are: edge flipping, edge collapsing, edge splitting and node
 190 removal, node repositioning and degree relaxation.

191 The adaptive re-meshing strategy presented in this paper is to re-mesh the
192 regions where the current mesh resolution is not sufficient to capture steep
193 gradients in localized portions of the flow. In this approach, we will re-mesh
194 edges, surfaces, volumes locally based on spacings derived from solutions
195 using surface and volume mesh generators. The localized regions are defined
196 as small as possible to cover the area of fast changing solution but still ensure
197 the smoothness between the adapted and the remaining regions. At the same
198 time, it is also important to preserve the global geometrical definition of
199 the domain boundaries, especially with curved surfaces. The mesh will be
200 refined or coarsened dependent on the fast changing or uniform flow features
201 detected.

202 5.1. Feature-Based Adaptivity

203 In pioneering work on error-based mesh adaptivity [10, 17], the mesh size
204 spatial distribution is computed from second derivatives of solutions under
205 the principle of equidistribution of errors. Those Hessian-based approaches
206 aim at controlling errors across the whole domain ignoring time discretization
207 error in unsteady simulations. In this work, a new mesh size distribution
208 function is defined based on the solution gradient and compared with the
209 current mesh size thus creating local regions for remeshing. The proposed
210 mesh size distribution also takes into account the mesh transition in time.
211 The numerical solution u such as density, pressure, etc at the current time
212 will be used to predict the desired element size for the new mesh.

213 *5.1.1. Solution-based size function*

214 In practical implementation of the present method, a minimum spacing
 215 δ_{min} and a maximum spacing δ_{max} are specified to control the distribution
 216 of the mesh in the computational domain. To define a metric for the new
 217 mesh, we employed Gaussian distribution based on the prescribed minimum,
 218 maximum (δ_{min} , δ_{max}) mesh sizes and the solution gradient $|\nabla u|_P$. The size
 219 function at node P is defined as follows:

$$\delta_P = \delta_{min} + (\delta_{max} - \delta_{min})e^{-\frac{(|\nabla u|_P - |\nabla u|_{min})^2}{2c^2}} \quad (10)$$

220 The new mesh size of the local regions to be re-meshed will fall into the range
 221 of $[\delta_{min}, \delta_{max}]$. The parameter c , controlling the width of the Gaussian distri-
 222 bution, defines the regions surrounding the high solution gradient where fine
 223 meshes are needed (refining). On the other hand, areas where the solution
 224 gradient is small will be re-meshed with δ_{max} (coarsening). At each node, the
 225 minimum value between the new mesh size and the global mesh size defined
 226 by the background mesh and sources is used for mesh adaptation.

227 *5.1.2. Re-meshing criteria*

228 As the optimal nodal spacing is determined from given solutions, the mesh
 229 will be adapted in the areas where there is a significant difference between the
 230 desired spacing and current mesh spacing. An indicator is defined to identify
 231 the regions where the mesh needs to be changed. From the new mesh spacing
 232 calculated at each node of the current mesh based on the above size function
 233 (Eq. 10), the percentage change between the current mesh spacing and the
 234 new one is defined at each node as

$$\epsilon_P = \frac{|\delta_P - \bar{\delta}_P|}{\bar{\delta}_P} \quad (11)$$

235 where δ_P and $\bar{\delta}_P$ are the new and current mesh spacing at node P , respec-
 236 tively. The computed mesh spacing can be smaller or larger than the current
 237 mesh spacing; thus requiring either refining or coarsening of the local re-
 238 gions. Nodes in regions where percentage change is greater than a certain
 239 threshold ($\epsilon_P \geq \epsilon_d$) will be deleted. Those deleted nodes and its surrounding
 240 neighbours collectively form local holes to be re-meshed. The current mesh
 241 is then modified with the objective of meeting the new distribution of mesh
 242 characteristics as closely as possible.

243 Fig. 1 shows an example of mesh adaptation procedure for a problem of
 244 explosion in a box. A charge is initialized as a region of high pressure inside
 245 the box. New mesh spacing can be derived from solution gradient Fig. 1(a)
 246 using the size function Eq. (10). The new and current mesh spacing are
 247 displayed in Fig. 1(b) and 1(c). This resulted in the percentage change
 248 between the spacings that was used to determine the local holes. It can be
 249 seen that the local area to be deleted (red regions in Fig. 1(d)) is well within
 250 the area of high gradient solutions.

251 5.2. Re-meshing algorithm

252 5.2.1. Hole identification and deletion

253 This process starts from the current unstructured mesh. Nodes which are
 254 identified by the re-meshing criteria are marked for deletion. The surrounding
 255 nodes that connected to marked nodes are also marked for deletion to create
 256 a smooth transient growth in mesh spacing between the re-meshed regions

257 and the remaining parts of the domain. Finding these surrounding nodes can
258 be done in several rounds to ensure smooth transition of mesh distribution.
259 From our experience, 2 to 3 rounds of identifying deleted nodes results in
260 a good transition of the mesh spacing. Provided the list of deleted nodes,
261 all elements connected to those nodes also need to be marked for deletion.
262 The marked elements are then removed from the original mesh and stored to
263 act as reference background grids for later interpolation of solutions from old
264 mesh to new adapted mesh. The deleted elements are grouped into 'holes'.
265 As seen in Fig. 1(d), the red areas define the holes with $\epsilon_d = 30\%$ as the
266 percentage change threshold. Subsequently, these holes are re-meshed with
267 the new nodal spacings which involves the following processes such as: local
268 edge discretization, local surface discretization and local volume regeneration.

269 5.2.2. Local curve and surface re-meshing

270 Each hole is bordered by a collection of faces in three dimensions which
271 defined the outer hull of the hole to be re-meshed. In some cases, the faces
272 are not located on the domain boundaries Fig. 2(a) and only require a local
273 volume adaptation for these holes. On the other hand, there are holes with
274 faces residing on the geometrical surface components Fig. 2(b). The collec-
275 tion of these faces will define local geometrical surfaces which are needed to
276 re-meshed as part of the adaptation process. New generated faces of the local
277 surfaces and the remaining faces of the hole will be used as initial fronts for
278 the local volume re-meshing.

279 The local regions to be triangulated on surface components are defined
280 by the closed loops of oriented curves Fig. 3. In addition, these loops may
281 contain local curves which are on the global curve components and also need

282 local re-meshing. Due to the randomness in forming the holes, the config-
283 uration of local surfaces can be complex. Therefore, special treatments are
284 needed to enhance the local boundary definition of the surfaces to be dis-
285 cretized so that these local areas are more manageable by the surface mesh
286 generator.

287 For the local boundary surface re-meshing, it is important to preserve the
288 curvature of the curves and surfaces of the boundaries. Therefore, during the
289 re-meshing processes, it is necessary to refer to the global boundary definition
290 to ensure that the new generated nodes are placed on the true geometrical
291 curve and surface definition. Fig. 4(a) and Fig. 4(b) show an example of
292 local curves and surfaces re-mesh for the explosion in urban areas. The
293 initial mesh used is depicted in Fig. 4(a). At the beginning, a fine mesh was
294 used at the source of explosion. As the explosion sweeps through the nearby
295 building structures, the mesh will be adapted to the change in solutions.
296 The adapted mesh at a certain time of the simulation is shown in Fig. 4(b).
297 As we can see in the figure, local curves and surfaces are re-meshed with
298 the new mesh size accordingly but still preserve the curvature of the domain
299 boundaries.

300 5.2.3. Local volume re-meshing

301 The collection of faces (triangles) in three dimensions including new gen-
302 erated faces obtained from local surface re-mesh and surrounding each hole
303 is now regarded as an initial front for the Delaunay triangulation algorithm.
304 A local background mesh is constructed based on the deleted tetrahedral el-
305 ements of each hole. The volume mesh generator, using the above Delaunay
306 triangulation scheme 3.3 fills the holes by constructing new elements accord-

307 ing to the required distribution of mesh parameters provided by the local
 308 background mesh.

309 5.2.4. Solution interpolation

There exist various techniques for solution interpolation between different meshes from a classical linear interpolation to conservative interpolation using cut-cell approach [1] or supermesh [5]. The conservative interpolation ensures mass conservation but introduces extra computational cost to the procedure. Moreover it was shown in [1] that benefits of conservative approach is small compared to cost for simulations of blasts and explosions. In this work the classical linear interpolation approach was adopted. When a new point P from the adapted mesh is introduced to the previous background mesh, a searching process is carried out to identify the element κ_i in the old mesh that contains the new point. The alternative digital tree [3] is used to accelerate this searching process. The solution $u(P)$ is then linearly interpolated to the new point P from the nodal values of that element.

$$u(P) = \sum_{j=1}^{n_k} b_j(P)u(P_j), \quad (12)$$

310 where n_k is the number of vertices P_j of element κ_i and b_j is the barycentric
 311 coordinate of P with respect to the element κ_i .

312 5.2.5. Local mesh adaptation procedure

313 In summary, the local mesh adaptation process will include the following
 314 steps:

- 315 1. Derive solution-based mesh size

316 • New nodal spacing is derived from current solution with respect
317 to a 'key' variable (pressure, density, velocity, etc) (Eq. 10).

318 • Compare with the global spacing to get the final desired mesh size.

319 2. Identify holes

320 • Compute percentage change between new and current nodal spac-
321 ings (Eq. 11).

322 • Use re-meshing criteria to mark regions where the mesh should be
323 changed.

324 • Group deleted elements into holes and build a list of remaining
325 nodes.

326 3. For each hole, do re-meshing locally

327 • Identify the boundary faces of the hole.

328 • From the boundary faces, if there are no local edges located as
329 part of the global geometrical definition curves, go to step 3b to
330 do local surface triangulation.

331 (a) Re-mesh curves on domain boundaries

332 • Construct local line sources by using the original curve seg-
333 ments with new spacings.

334 • Discretize the local curves.

335 • Update the list of nodes and proceed to surface re-meshing.

336 (b) Local surface re-meshing

337 • The local surface components of the hole boundaries are ex-
338 tracted from the list of deleted elements.

- 339 • If there are no faces located on the domain boundaries, go to
 340 step 3c to do the volume adaptation.
- 341 • Define the surface regions to be re-meshed based on the closed
 342 loops of oriented curves. Each local surface may contain sev-
 343 eral regions.
- 344 • Start advancing front triangulation for each region and per-
 345 form mesh enhancements.
- 346 • Update the list of nodes and export the new surface mesh for
 347 volume generation.
- 348 (c) Generate local volume mesh for each hole
- 349 • Construct a local background mesh by using the deleted ele-
 350 ments of the hole with the new spacings.
- 351 • Using the new generated faces as boundaries (if any), the re-
 352 mainder of the hole is re-meshed using the isotropic Delaunay
 353 triangulation with the local background mesh defined above.
- 354 • Add the local new meshes to the global mesh.
- 355 4. Interpolate values of the unknowns for all the newly generated nodes.

356 5.2.6. Efficiency

357 For mesh adaptation, re-meshing the whole computational domain is not
 358 favourable. It is necessary to obtain better accuracy but at a lower com-
 359 putational expense. In this approach, adaptation will be performed only at
 360 regions surrounding the critical physics areas. The re-meshed regions should
 361 be as small as possible but still ensure the smooth transition in mesh size
 362 between the remaining region and the holes. The parameter c in Eq. (10) con-

363 trolling the width of the Gaussian distribution function will define the local
364 regions covering the high gradient features where fine meshes are needed. In
365 addition, imposing the current spacing at the boundary of the holes instead
366 of using the new spacing will help to create the smooth transition between
367 the holes and the remaining parts.

368 6. Numerical Examples

369 6.1. Explosion in cylinder

370 In this section, simulations of an explosion in a cylinder were carried
371 out to demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed local mesh adaptation
372 scheme. The problem involves simulations of the flow field when a charge
373 is placed at the centre of one end of the circular cylinder of radius of 5 me-
374 ters and 20 meters in length. The equivalence of 100kg TNT charge was
375 initialized using a spherical burst model. As the charge is activated, a high-
376 pressure field will move toward the cylinder walls generating reflected waves
377 and interacting with each other to propagate downstream to the other end
378 of the cylinder. The air inside the cylinder is modelled as compressible and
379 initially set at atmospheric condition ($101325Pa$). Here, we employed the
380 explicit flow solver as described in section 4 coupled with the proposed mesh
381 adaptation to simulate the explosion in the cylinder. As the flows develop
382 strong shock waves, the local extremum diminishing (LED) limiter was used
383 to stabilize solutions and overcome instabilities due to the high order approx-
384 imation. Using the proposed approach, it is possible to observe the solution
385 of transient flows using adaptive re-mesh methods.

386 First, simulations without mesh adaptation were performed to set as

387 benchmarks for comparisons. The mesh were clustered at the centre of one
388 end where the charge is placed to better representing the explosion. Two set
389 of meshes were generated for simulations including a coarser mesh of 780K
390 elements (with minimum mesh size of 0.03 m at the charge location, 0.35
391 m for the rest of the cylinder) as seen in Fig. 5(a) and a reasonably finer
392 mesh of 16 million tetrahedral elements with 0.03 m as mesh size Fig. 5(b).
393 Flows were simulated using first order (HLLC1) and second order (HLLC2)
394 scheme. In mesh adaptation process, we started with the coarser mesh (780K
395 elements) clustered at the charge location to capture the explosive initializa-
396 tion. The adaptation parameters have been set to: $\epsilon_d = 0.3$, $\delta_{min} = 0.03m$,
397 $\delta_{max} = 0.35m$. The explosive wave is advanced toward the wall of the cylin-
398 der. At a certain adaptation frequency, the mesh is adapted based on the
399 pressure solution to better follow the wave propagation in this case. Fig. 6
400 shows the resulting meshes together with the pressure solutions at various
401 times in the simulation. It can be seen that the mesh adaptation can capture
402 the local high-gradient features in the solution and regenerate the mesh lo-
403 cally. The elements whose size and shape do not meet the requirement of the
404 new solution distribution are identified and the mesh is adapted according
405 to the new solution-derived mesh size. In addition, local mesh adaptation
406 shows advantages in re-meshing efficiency. As can be seen in Fig. 6, adapta-
407 tion is only performed at one end of the cylinder where large gradients are
408 observed. In these figures, the local holes to be remeshed follow the criti-
409 cal flow as they move from the centre toward the cylinder wall. The mesh
410 are reasonably large at regions with uniform flow and sufficient small at the
411 critical areas.

412 The results using different simulation strategies including mesh adapta-
413 tion approach are shown in Figure 7. In this figure, the numerical results of
414 pressure probed at the corner of the cylinder are compared with the available
415 empirical data [9]. The empirical data is derived from a hemispherical TNT
416 surface burst and the pressure data is presented for a case of reflected shock
417 on a flat surface at 5 meters away from the charge. The peak pressure from
418 empirical data is 4.1×10^6 Pa. While the finer mesh apparently provides bet-
419 ter resolutions to solution, the second order scheme, HLLC2, improves the
420 solution further. It can be observed from Figure 7(a) that HLLC2 performs
421 better on both pressure profile and peak pressure. The numerical results of
422 mesh adaptation starting from a coarse grid are also shown in Figure 7(a). By
423 using mesh adaptation, HLLC1 scheme can give better results at 2.1×10^6 Pa
424 peak which is the same as the fine mesh result using HLLC1 solver. The peak
425 in mesh adaptation with HLLC2 scheme increase significantly to 4.1×10^6 Pa
426 and almost close to the empirical data. In addition, with mesh adaptation,
427 not only does the value of the peak get higher and closer to the empirical,
428 but the arrival time, the time pressure pulse reaches its maximum also shifts
429 toward to the empirical peak. The efficiency of the proposed mesh adap-
430 tation approach can be illustrated by comparing the CPU time of various
431 simulations as shown in Figure 7(b) for the same simulation. Run times of
432 coarse mesh (780K elements) with adaptation are compared with run times
433 used to run fine mesh (16M elements) without mesh adaptation. The times
434 used to run the fine mesh with HLLC1 and HLLC2 solvers are 18 hours and
435 97.5 hours, respectively, with a single CPU (Intel Xeon 2.67 GHz). By em-
436 ploying mesh adaptation, run times with HLLC1 and HLLC2 solvers are 11

437 hours and 39 hours, respectively, resulting in about 40% and 60% reduction
438 in CPU time. Therefore, mesh adaptation does help to reduce the time in
439 producing accurate numerical results. It also noted that the adaptation time
440 is just a small percentage of the total run time. In case of HLLC1 scheme,
441 the adaptation time is about 30% of the total run time. However, in case of
442 HLLC2 scheme, it can be seen that the solver time is much more than the
443 adaptation time due to the fact that HLLC2 solver is more expensive while
444 the adaptation time remains the same.

445 For a comparison with experimental data, a similar simulation setup was
446 also carried out for a blast in a cylindrical tube [18]. The test consists of a 24
447 m long steel tube with a 1.5 m diameter. A spherical charge of 500 g Swedish
448 plastic explosive (Sprangdeg m46) was detonated at 1.0m from the open end.
449 Pressures are measured at gauges 11m and 20m from the charge along the
450 length of the tube. Numerical simulations were carried out to test the accu-
451 racy and efficiency of mesh adaptation process. A comparison of the test data
452 and simulation is shown in Figure 8 between experimental data, simulation
453 results on uniform mesh and adaptive mesh based on pressure. Experimen-
454 tal data has been operated on with a low-pass filter. The uniform mesh had
455 an element size of 3cm near the charge location (for initialization) and 5cm
456 elsewhere for a total of 2.12 million tetrahedral elements. The initial mesh
457 for the adaptive runs had an element size of 3cm near the charge and 15cm
458 elsewhere with 0.64 million tetrahedral elements. The minimum and maxi-
459 mum element size controls for adaptivity were 3 cm and 15 cm respectively.
460 The simulations were run on 4 CPUs of a workstation with 32 Gb of RAM.
461 It can be seen that numerical simulations agree well with experimental data

462 for both shock peak pressure and arrival time. However, the simulations do
 463 not predict the negative pressure dip after the shock which is observed in the
 464 experiments [18]. Mesh adaptive simulations based on pressure and density
 465 provided nearly identical pressure history as shown in Figure 8. As shown
 466 in Figure 9(b) density-based adaptivity requires more elements to capture
 467 the density gradients at the contact interface behind the shock. It can be
 468 seen that compared to uniform mesh, mesh adaptivity reduces number of el-
 469 ements in the domain while maintaining sufficient mesh resolution in critical
 470 flow regions for accurate shock capturing. Figure 9(a) shows a comparison of
 471 CPU time for different simulations. It is clearly seen that the mesh adaptive
 472 simulations result in large reduction of run-time compared to running on a
 473 uniform mesh while rendering the same accuracy. Density based adaptation
 474 required longer run time compared to pressure based counter part due to
 475 larger mesh generated using density as the refinement feature. For applica-
 476 tions of blast and explosion, it is found that pressure based adaptation is the
 477 most efficient strategy for both accuracy and efficiency.

478 6.2. Explosion in urban area

479 Another example will demonstrate the capability of the proposed mesh
 480 adaptation on a large scale area with complicated geometrical features. The
 481 problem concerns an explosion of an equivalence of 2000kg TNT charge in
 482 an urban area Figure 10 as was described in [20]. The metric is defined
 483 based on the pressure gradient. The adaptation parameters have been set
 484 to: $\epsilon_d = 0.3$, $\delta_{min} = 0.5$ m, $\delta_{max} = 2.0$ m for a computational domain size of
 485 $160\text{m} \times 130\text{m} \times 50\text{m}$. By varying the parameter c in Eq. (10), one can control
 486 the refining areas around the regions with critical physics. In this example,

487 we set $c = 0.04$ to define the width of the Gaussian distribution. Adapted
488 meshes are presented in Figure 11. As shock waves propagate through the
489 domain, they are focused more in the street channels between the buildings;
490 thus requiring mesh adaptation on geometrical surface definition. Figure 12
491 shows comparison of pressure history measured at two different locations in
492 a similar scaled city set-up as shown in [18]. It can be seen that the transient
493 phenomena are well captured by the proposed mesh adaptation procedure as
494 compared to experimental data. Simulations with mesh adaptation provide
495 similar results with uniform mesh while it takes much less time (about 10
496 times less) to run the simulations. It highlights the benefits and predictive
497 capability of the local mesh adaptation process in simulating explosion in
498 areas with complex geometries.

499 7. Conclusions

500 This paper has presented a mesh adaptation approach to track the critical
501 features in unsteady compressible Navier-Stokes flows. It is capable of gener-
502 ating suitable meshes for problems in which the development of the solution
503 is not known before hand. The approach shows a robust, reliable and effi-
504 cient algorithm to cater for local mesh adaptation based on solution output
505 at any time. The adaptation procedures combine local curve, surface and
506 volume re-meshing allowing the quality of the solution to be enhanced. In
507 addition, the boundary geometries of the computational domain are always
508 preserved in the adaptation process. Since, mesh adaptation is only per-
509 formed at small local areas covering the critical solutions features, the time
510 to do the re-meshing becomes reasonably small compared to the numerical

511 simulation time. The approach provides a powerful tool for mesh adaptation
512 for domains of complex geometry. Future works will focus on the scalable
513 parallelization, local anisotropic mesh adaptation and mesh adaptation in
514 fluid structure interactions.

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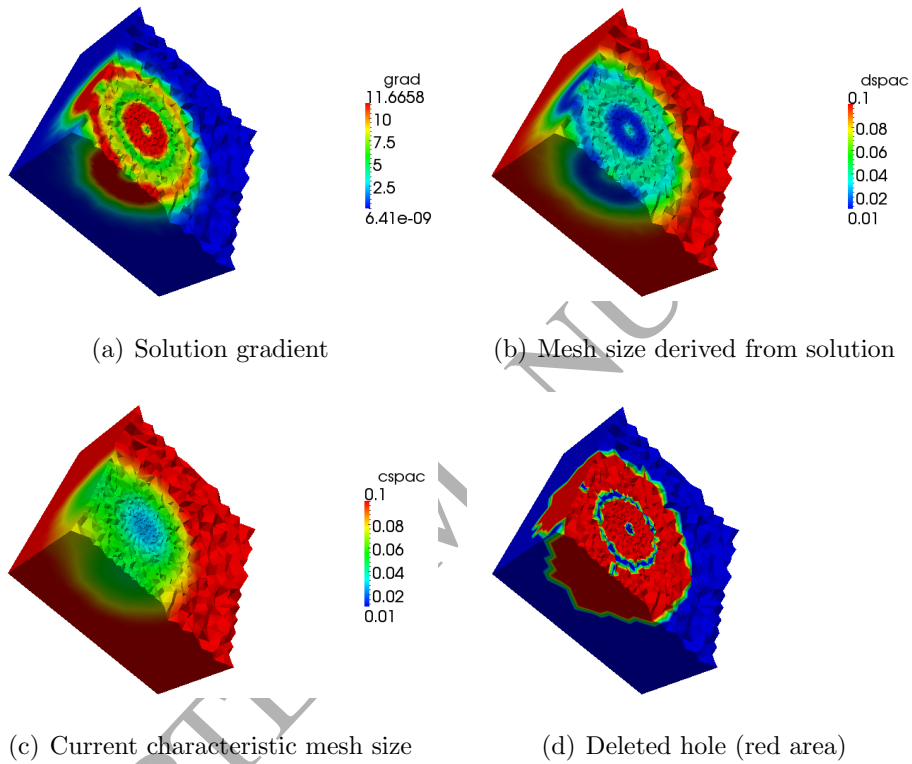
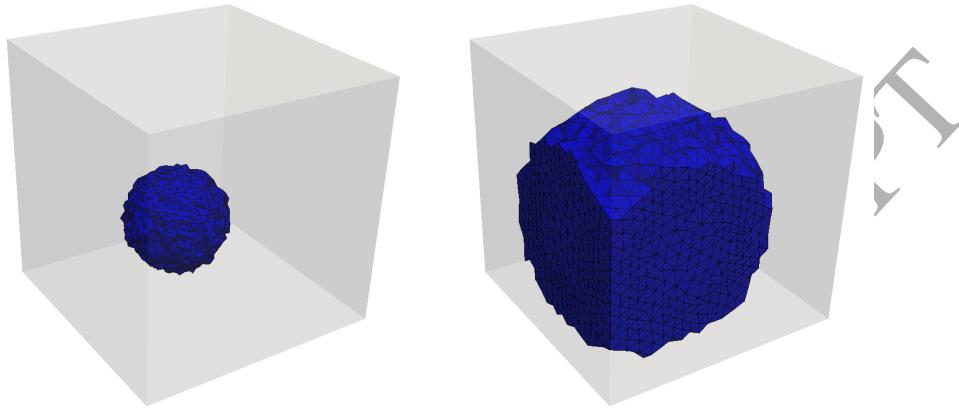


Figure 1: Adaptation process for the problem of explosion in box. The new nodal spacing (b) is determined from given solutions (a) and compared with current mesh spacing (c). The difference between new and current mesh spacing is computed to determine element to be deleted. Those deleted elements will then form local deleted regions or holes (d) for re-meshing.



(a) Hole completely inside the domain (b) Hole with faces on boundaries

Figure 2: Local holes to be re-meshed in the cases of hole not intersecting with domain surfaces (a) and hole with faces residing on the geometrical surface component (b)

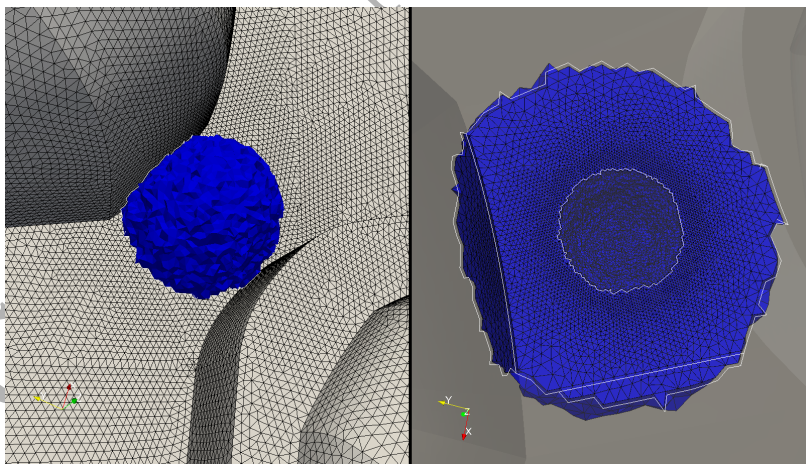
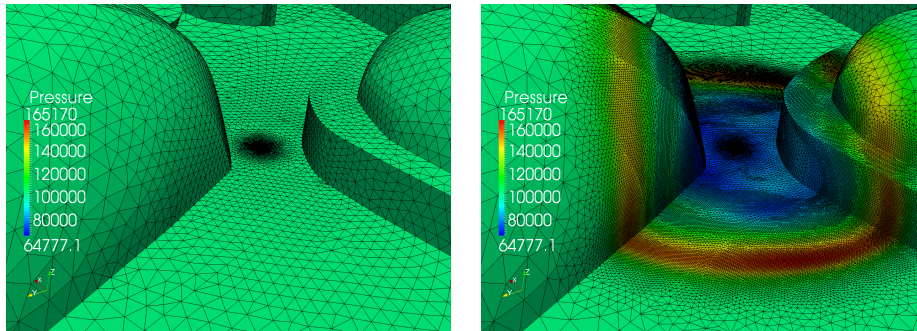


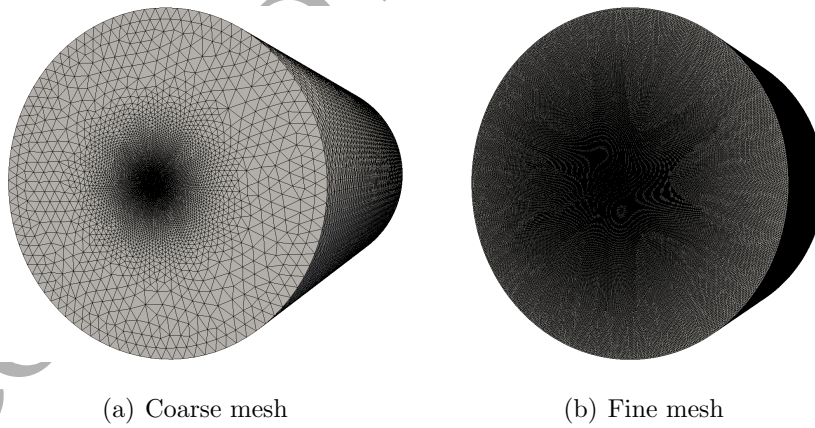
Figure 3: A hole with local curves and surfaces located on boundary components of the domain (explosion in urban area).



(a) Initial mesh

(b) Re-mesh local edges, surfaces

Figure 4: Example of explosion in urban area. The initial mesh (a) shows mesh clustering at the charge area, while the adapted mesh (b) follows the wave propagation.



(a) Coarse mesh

(b) Fine mesh

Figure 5: Initial meshes used for explosion in cylinder: (a) a coarse mesh of 780K elements and (b) fine mesh of 16 millions tetrahedral elements.

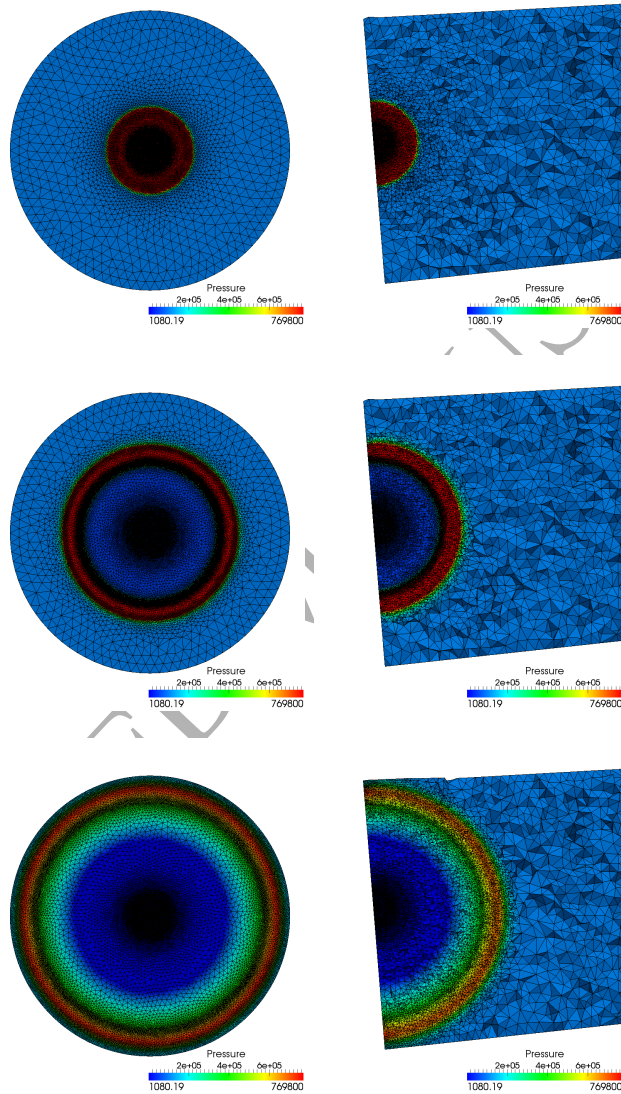
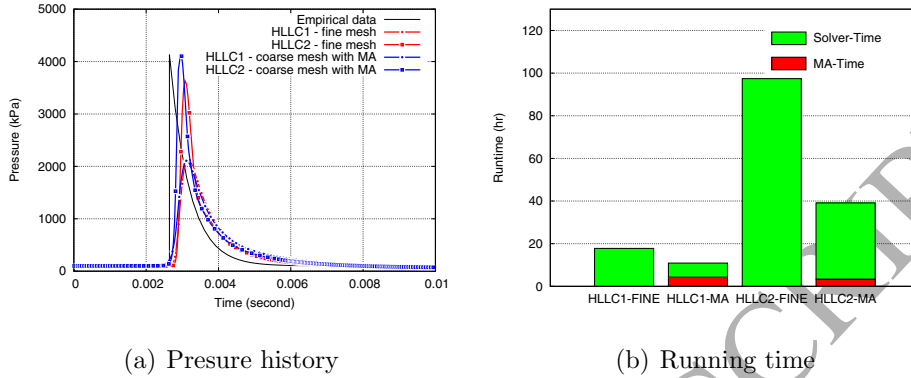


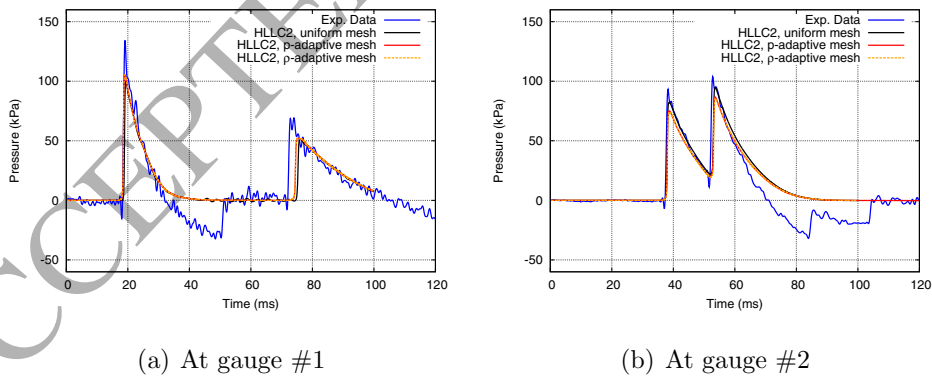
Figure 6: Local mesh adaptation at different simulation times.



(a) Pressure history

(b) Running time

Figure 7: (a) Comparison of pressure history at the corner of the cylinder between different approaches. It can be observed that second order scheme provides higher peak and better pressure profile than first order scheme. HLLC1 and HLLC2 scheme with local mesh adaptation (MA) significantly improve the solution in peak pressure and pressure profile. (b) Mesh adaptation using first and second order HLLC scheme provide more accurate prediction with much less running time as compared with the same numerical scheme on fine mesh. Mesh adaptation process takes about less than 10% in simulations using HLLC2.



(a) At gauge #1

(b) At gauge #2

Figure 8: Comparison of pressure history at (a) gauge #1 and (b) gauge #2 at 11m and 20m along the length of the tube.

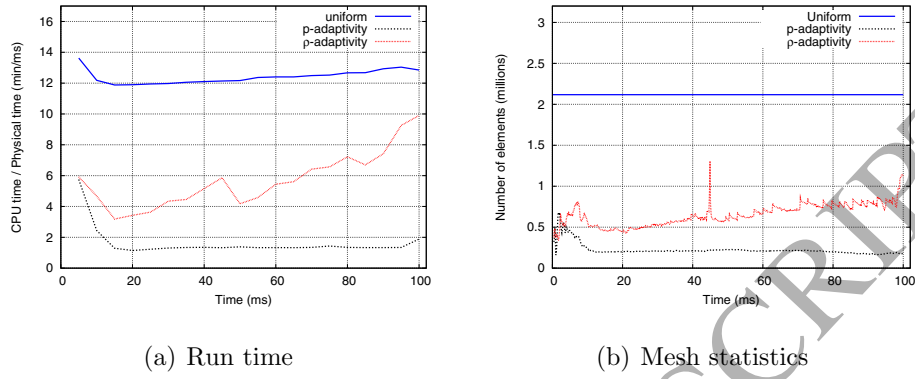


Figure 9: Comparison of (a) run time and (b) mesh size between different simulations using uniform mesh, adaptivity based on pressure and density.

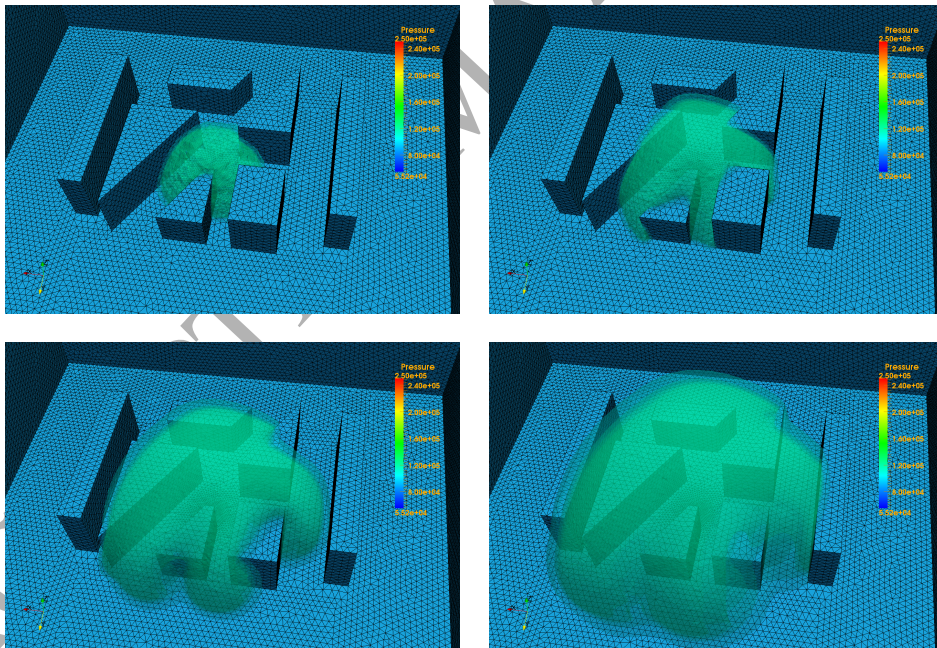


Figure 10: Isopressure surfaces at times $t = 8$ ms, 21 ms, 40 ms and 60 ms showing the development of the explosion in the city area.

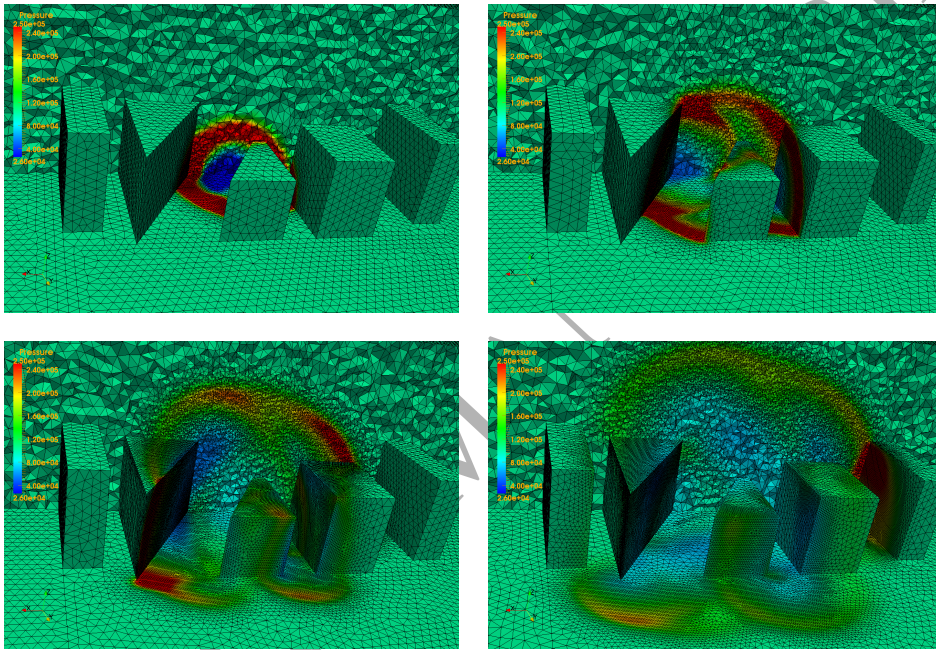


Figure 11: Adapted volume meshes and cutting plane through the domain at times $t = 8$ ms, 21 ms, 40 ms and 60 ms. The mesh is refined at high gradient pressure and coarsened at regions with small gradient. Refinement is applied to geometrical surfaces where mesh sizes on the building surfaces are adjusted following the wave propagation.

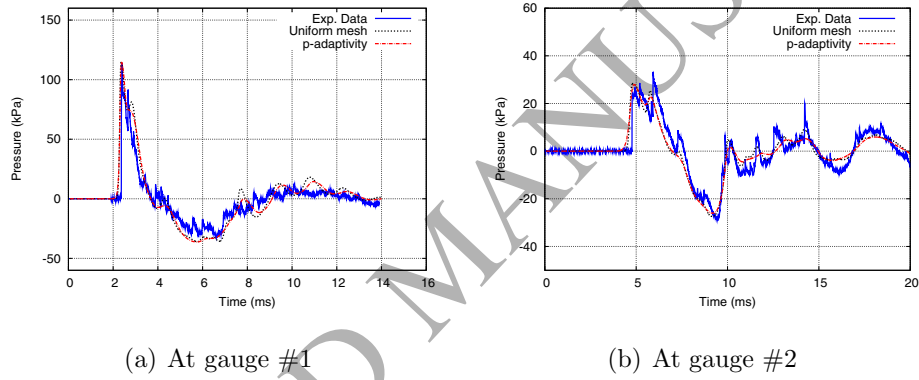


Figure 12: Pressure history and comparison between numerical simulations and experiment data for blast in a scaled city [18]. Pressure is probed at two different location along the street channel.