Efficiency of the high-order Spectral Difference method in combustion

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- 1. Some context about high-order methods and the Spectral Difference (SD) method in combustion.
- 2. Influence of polynomial degree on accuracy of the results using the SD method.
- 3. Influence of polynomial degree on computational cost using the SD method.
- 4. Use of local polynomial adaptation to reduce computational cost with the SD method.
- 5. General conclusion.







A little bit of context

Context

- Large Eddy Simulations (LES) become essential to simulate correctly flame/turbulence interactions.
- LES need an accurate spatial discretization with low dissipation and dispersion errors.
- High-order methods (HOM) such as Discontinuous Galerkin¹ (DG), Flux Reconstruction² (FR) or Spectral Differences³ (SD) methods have these properties.
- HOM can manage both mesh refinement and the order of the local representation of the solution.
- However, very few combustion applications were considered with HOM for now.
- Most of them were done using the DG method 4,5,6,7 and not using FR or SD...

Objectives

- \bigstar Evaluate the SD capability in terms of accuracy and performance to simulate combustion.
- \bigstar Use local *p*-adaptation on a combustion case with the SD method.

^{7.} Johnson et al, A conservative discontinuous Galerkin discretization for the chemically reacting Navier-Stokes equations, J. Comput. Phys. 423 (2020) 109826.







^{1.} Reed et al, Triangular mesh methods for the neutron equation, Tech. rep., Los Alamos Scientific Lab., N. Mex.(USA) (1973).

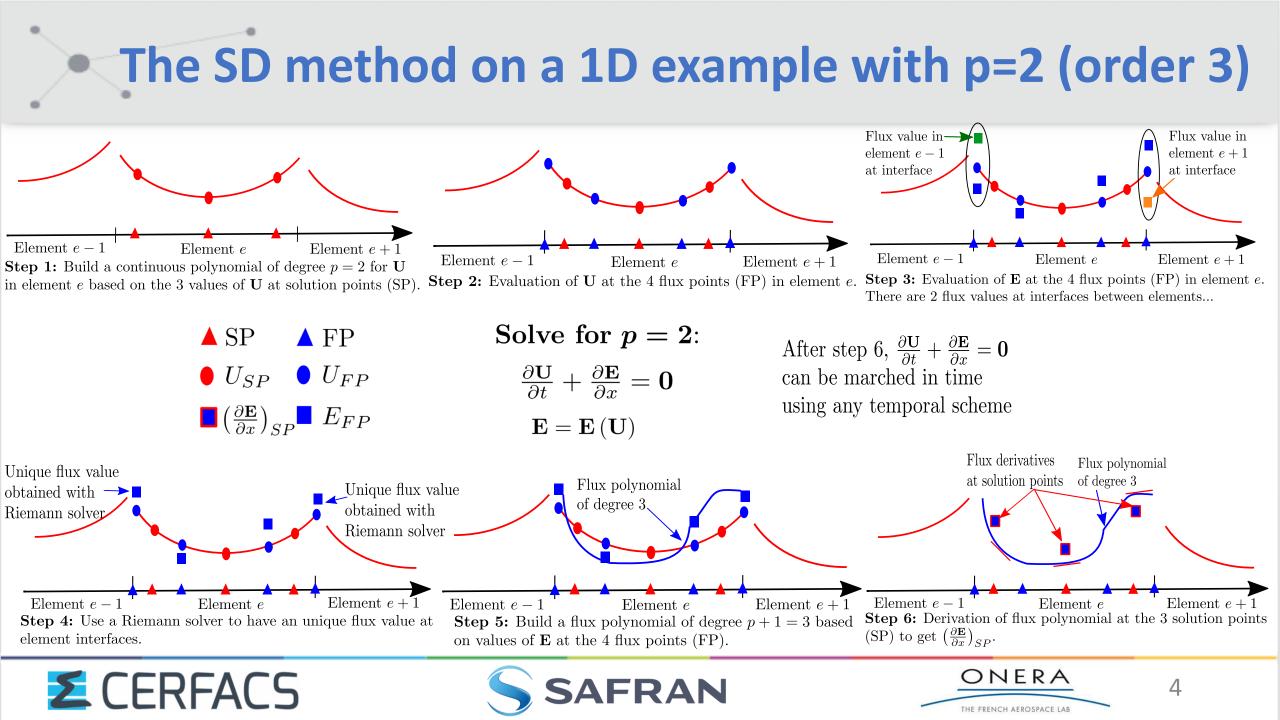
^{2.} HUYNH, Hung T. A flux reconstruction approach to high-order schemes including discontinuous Galerkin methods. In : 18th AIAA computational fluid dynamics conference. 2007. p. 4079.

^{3.} D. A. Kopriva, A conservative staggered-grid Chebyshev multidomain method for compressible flows. II. A semi-structured method, J. Comput. Phys. 128 (2) (1996) 475-488.

^{4.} Lv et al, Discontinuous Galerkin method for multicomponent chemically reacting flows and combustion, J.Comput. Phys. 270 (2014) 105-137.

^{5.} Lv et al, High-order discontinuous Galerkin method for applications to multicomponent and chemically reacting flows, Acta Mech. Sin. 33 (3) (2017) 486-499.

^{6.} Billet et al, A Runge Kutta discontinuous Galerkin approach to solve reactive flows on conforming hybrid grids: the parabolic and source operators, Comput. Fluids 95 (2014) 98-115.





SD method in combustion

- Very few combustion applications were done using the SD method:
 - 1. Gupta et al^8 and Tofaili et al^9 show 1D detonations.
 - 2. Marchal et al^{10} succeeded in simulating 1D and 2D laminar flames.
- Question: Interest of using such method in combustion in terms of accuracy and computational cost?
- To answer
 - ★ Compare JAGUAR, SD code validated in ref [10] in combustion, and $AVBP^{11}$ in terms of accuracy and computational cost.

JAGUAR

- **Species transport:** Hirschfelder and Curtiss with a constant Schmidt number per species.
- Species source terms computed with Arrhenius's law.
- **JANAF** enthalpy tables used for **thermodynamic**.
- Spatial schemes are of order p + 1, p = polynomial degree

AVBP

- **Species transport:** Hirschfelder and Curtiss with a constant Schmidt number per species.
- Species source terms computed with Arrhenius's law.
- **JANAF** enthalpy tables used for **thermodynamic**.
- Spatial schemes: Lax-Wendroff (2nd order in space) (LW) and Two-step Taylor Galerkin (3rd order in space) (TTGC).

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^{8.} Gupta et al, Numerical investigation of sustained planar detonation waves in a periodic domain, in: 2018 Fluid Dynamics Conference, 2018, p. 3240.

^{9.} Tofaili et al, One-dimensional dynamics of gaseous detonations revisited, Combustion and Flame 232 (2021) 111535.

^{10.} Marchal et al, Extension of the Spectral Difference method to combustion, Submitted to Journal of Computational Physics. https://arxiv.org/pdf/2112.09636.pdf

^{11.} Schonfeld et al, Steady and unsteady flow simulations using the hybrid flow solver AVBP, AIAA journal 37 (11) (1999) 1378-1385.

Concept of degrees of freedom and case presentation

Degrees of freedom (DOF) = points where the numerical solution is advanced in time.
 JAGUAR
 AVBP

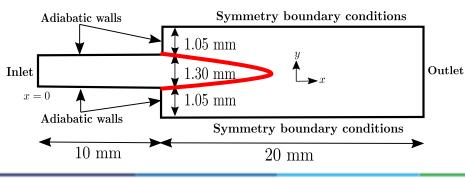
DOF = Solution points in the whole domain = $N_e (p+1)^2$ DOF = cell nodes in the whole domain N_e = number of quadrilateral elements

 $(p+1)^2$ = Solution points in a quadrilateral element

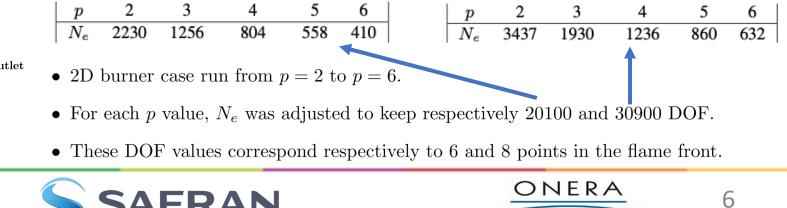
• Fair comparison done at same DOF value. 2 choices available to keep DOF \approx cst in SD:

★ Choice $1 = \text{large } N_e$ with small degree p OR Choice $2 = \text{small } N_e$ with large degree p.

Question: Which choice is better in terms of accuracy and computational time?



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Influence of polynomial order on the solution accuracy

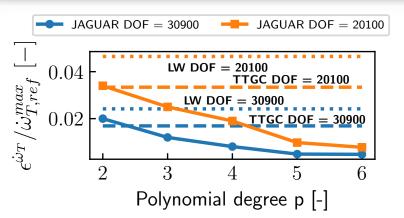
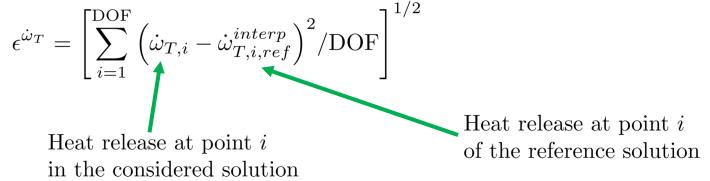


Figure: Evolution of $\epsilon^{\dot{\omega}_T}/\dot{\omega}_{T,ref}^{max}$ with respect to p for two numbers of DOF. AVBP schemes (LW and TTGC) at these DOF values are also shown with horizontal lines.

L2-error on the 2D heat release rate field:



• Reference solution is at p = 6 with 23 points in the flame front.

Conclusion on accuracy results

- Error \searrow when DOF \nearrow for both JAGUAR and AVBP simulations.
- At a given DOF, error \searrow when scheme order \nearrow also for both codes.
- In JAGUAR case, error at high DOF with low p is recovered at low DOF with high p.
- Large elements with high p values is better for accuracy. What about computational cost?

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Influence of polynomial order on computational cost

2 quantities are of interest:

• Iteration cost per DOF $\kappa [\mu s/\text{ite/DOF}]$ AND real time taken to simulate 1 ms of physical time $\tau[s]$.

Results for both AVBP and JAGUAR on 36 Intel cores

JAGUAR								
p	2	3	4	5	6			
N_e	3437	1930	1236	860	632			
κ	8.5	7.7	7.4	7.3	7.1			
au	361	371	407	471	558			
AVBP								
	$\kappa_{ m LW}$	2.8	$\kappa_{ m TTGC}$	6.3				
	$ au_{ m LW}$	106	$ au_{ m TTGC}$	239				

Values of κ and τ in the **30900 DOF case.**

JAGUAR

- κ almost constant with p and close to κ_{TTGC} .
- τ is higher and increases with p due to CFL restrictions. CFL_{lim} ~ $(p+1)^{-1}$

	TAC								
JAGUAR									
2	3	4	5	6					
2230	1256	804	558	410					
8.2	7.5	7.4	7.2	7.2					
182	190	216	247	292					
AVBP									
$\kappa_{ m LW}$	2.8	$\kappa_{ m TTGC}$	6.4						
$ au_{ m LW}$	57	$ au_{ m TTGC}$	128						
	2230 8.2 182 <i>κ</i> _{LW}	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	2230 1256 804 8.2 7.5 7.4 182 190 216 κLW 2.8 κTTGC	2345223012568045588.27.57.47.2182190216247 $AVBP$ κ_{LW} 2.8 κ_{TTGC} 6.45757120					

Values of κ and τ in the **20100 DOF case.**

AVBP

- κ increases with scheme order: $\kappa_{\text{TTGC}} > \kappa_{\text{LW}}$.
- τ increases mostly because of κ but same CFL value (≈ 0.7) for LW and TTGC.





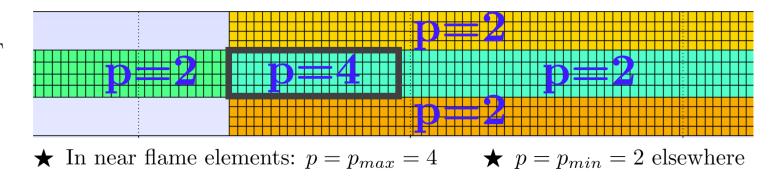


The use of p-adaptation to reduce computational cost

- Local *p*-adaptation puts high values of *p* only in regions of interest.
- Thus, less DOF but accuracy is conserved \Rightarrow gain in computational time.
- However, it does not solve time steps issues.

Illustration of local p-adaptation on the 2D burner case

Mesh firstly designed for 30900 DOF case with p = 4 in all elements:



- Computation done in **3 steps:**
 - 1. Compute sensor values $\tilde{\theta}_e \in [0, 1]$ for each element with a first simulation at p = 2.
 - 2. Set Polynomial order per element: $p_e = p_{min} + \text{INT} \left[\tanh \left(\alpha \tilde{\theta}_e \right) \left(p_{max} p_{min} \right) \right], \alpha = 100 \text{ here.}$
 - 3. A new computation with the p_e distribution is runned.
- Sensor is based on the norm of density gradient here.

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The use of p-adaptation to reduce computational cost

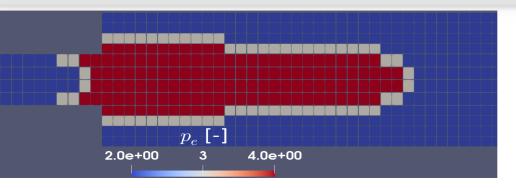


Figure: Polynomial repartition per element when $p_{min} = 2$ and $p_{max} = 4$ on the same mesh.

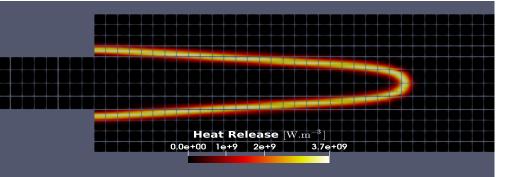


Figure: Steady 2D heat release rate field when $2 \le p \le 4$ on the same mesh.

	p=2	$2 \le p \le 4$	p = 4
DOF	10944	13444	30900
$=\epsilon^{\dot{\omega}_T}/\dot{\omega}_{T,ref}^{max}$	4.41×10^{-2}	8.7×10^{-3}	8.1×10^{-3}
κ	8.3	7.9	7.4
au	96	199	407

Table: Values of DOF, $\epsilon^{\dot{\omega}_T}/\dot{\omega}_{T,ref}^{max}$, $\kappa[\mu s/\text{ite}/\text{DOF}]$ and $\tau[s]$ between a computation at $p = 2, 2 \le p \le 4$ and p = 4 on the same mesh.

Compared to the full p = 4 case

- With $2 \le p \le 4$: 56% less DOF.
- Without sensor evaluation:

 $\tau (2 \le p \le 4) = 295 < \tau (p = 4) = 407$: **51% gain in** τ .

• With sensor evaluation:

 $\tau (p = 2) + \tau (2 \le p \le 4) = 295 < \tau (p = 4) = 407$: 28% gain in τ .

• Load balancing employed to put more processors on zones where p is higher.









The SD method:

- Performs better with large elements coupled with high p values.
- Has iteration cost almost constant with *p*.
- Has a computational time increasing with p because of CFL restrictions.
- Can use local *p*-adaptation to keep accuracy and gain in computational time without re-meshing.

Next step

• Compare Adaptative Mesh Refinement¹² coupled with finite volume method and local p-adaptation in combustion.

12. J.Bell, AMR for low mach number reacting flow, in: Adaptive Mesh Refinement-Theory and Applications, Springer, 2005, pp. 203-221.







Thank you for your attention! Questions?











Influence of polynomial order on computational cost

Comments about κ almost constant with p

- Competition between 2 processes: extrapolation process at FP and interface treatments at FP.
- At constant DOF: extrapolation process ~ $O\left(p\right)$ and interface treatment ~ $O\left(1/p\right)$.
- Low p values: interface treatment dominates (more interface FP and also more MPI communications).
- High p values: interface treatment is less costly and compensates the O(p) increases as long as p < 8.
- With the DG method, an increase of p results in an increase of κ even if p < 8 because of quadrature rules¹³.

Comments about τ well higher for the SD method

- τ is linked to the timestep/CFL used and in SD the CFL limit scales as $(p+1)^{-1}$.
- In this work, for $p = \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, CFL values were set to 0.36, 0.32, 0.28, 0.24 and 0.20 with a RK3-TVD scheme¹⁴.
- On the other hand, AVBP is usually at CFL = 0.7 for both LW and TTGC schemes.
- However, this CFL difference is even higher for DG schemes where the CFL limit scales as¹⁵ $(2p+1)^{-1}$.

Wu et al, On the accuracy and efficiency of discontinuous Galerkin, Spectral Difference and Correction Procedure via Reconstruction methods, J. Comput. Phys. 259 (2014) 70-95.
 Gottlieb et al, Total Variation diminishing Runge-Kutta schemes, Math. Comput. 67 (221) (1998) 73-85.
 Cockburn et al, Runge Kutta discontinuous Calerkin, methods for convertion dominated problems. SIAM J. Sci. Comput. 16 (2) (2001) 172–261.

^{15.} Cockburn et al, Runge-Kutta discontinuous Galerkin methods for convection-dominated problems, SIAM J. Sci. Comput. 16 (3) (2001) 173-261.





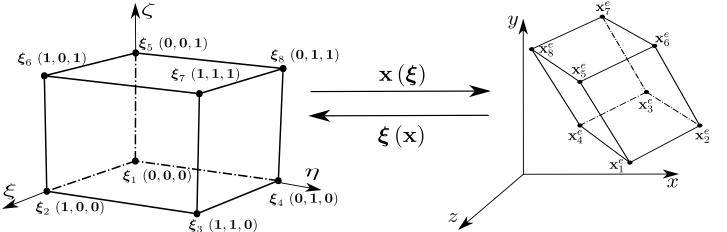


Isoparametric transformation for hexahedral elements

• Any hexahedral mesh element $[a, b] \times [c, d] \times [e, f]$ is transformed into a cube $[0, 1]^3$:

$$\underset{x}{[a,b]} \times \underset{y}{[c,d]} \times \underset{z}{[e,f]} \xrightarrow[|J|]{} \underset{\xi}{\longrightarrow} [0,1] \times \underset{\eta}{[0,1]} \times \underset{\zeta}{[0,1]}$$

with |J| the determinant of the Jacobian of the transformation.



- Cube $[0,1]^3$ is called the **isoparametric domain**.
- Equations are also transformed and solved in the isoparametric domain.
- Such transformation is called **isoparametric**.









Position of SP and FP in 1D

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- SP and FP positions are not arbitrary.
- Actually, in 1D-SD any segment [a, b] is transformed into segment [0, 1] using:

 $\begin{bmatrix} a, b \end{bmatrix} \underset{x}{\longrightarrow} \begin{bmatrix} 0, 1 \end{bmatrix}$ isoparametric transformation in 1D

with |J| the determinant of the Jacobian of the transformation.

• Then, each element is treated in the same way using SP and FP located at:

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}_{SP} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \cos \left(\frac{2i - 1}{2(p+1)} \pi \right) \right) \end{bmatrix}_{1 \le i \le p+1} \text{ Gauss-Chebyshev points} \quad (1)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}_{FP} = \begin{bmatrix} 0, p \text{ Gauss-Legendre points}, 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}_{FP \text{ Legendre}} \text{ SP and FP for } p = 2$$
in 1D in the isoparametric domain
$$\boldsymbol{\xi}$$
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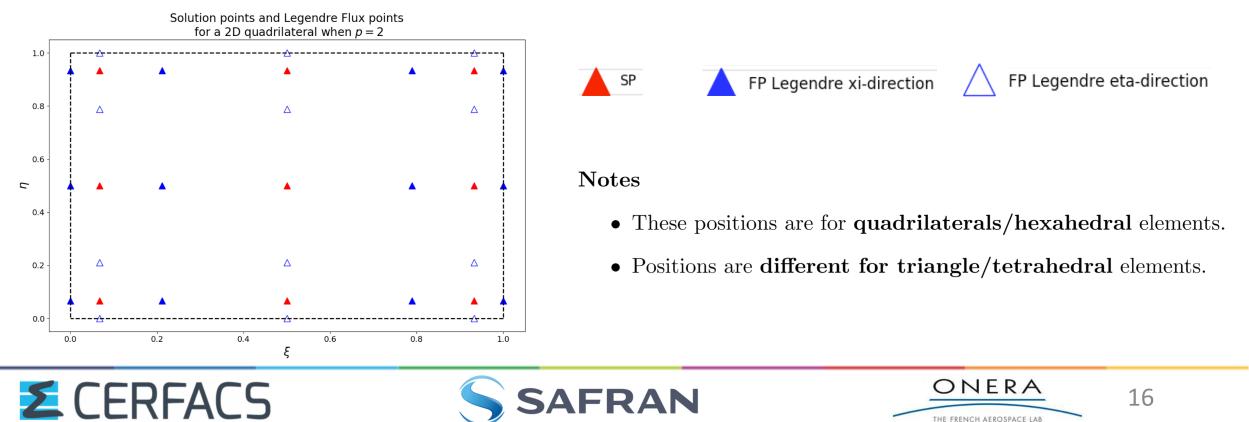
Position of SP and FP: extension in 2D and 3D

- In 2D and 3D, SP and FP are set direction by direction as in 1D.
- For instance in 2D, quadrilateral $[a, b] \times [c, d]$ is transformed into $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$:

 $[a,b] \times [c,d] \xrightarrow[|J|]{} [0,1] \times [0,1]$

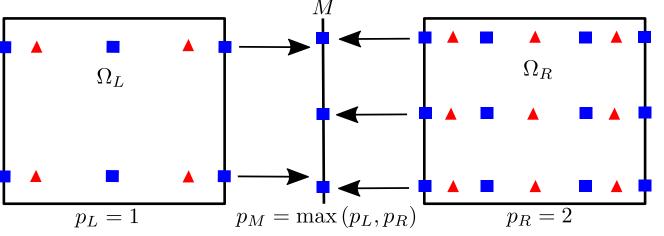
isoparametric transformation in 2D

• In dimension *d*: $N_{SP} = (p+1)^d$, $N_{FP} = d \times (p+2) (p+1)^{d-1}$.



Local polynomial adaptation: Mortar Element Method

- When using local *p*-adaptation, interfaces between elements with different degrees occur.
- Interface FP are not located at same positions between the 2 elements:



- A fictive interface, called a Mortar, is introduced where interface treatment is done.
- For convective fluxes for instance it is done in 3 steps:
 - 1. \mathbf{Q}^L projected on M to get $\mathbf{Q}^{M,L}$ and $\mathbf{Q}^{M,R} = \mathbf{Q}^R$ since $p_M = p_R$.
 - 2. Riemann problem solved between $\mathbf{Q}^{M,L}$ and $\mathbf{Q}^{M,R}$ to get fluxes on Mortar FP noted \mathbf{F}^{M} .
 - 3. \mathbf{F}^{M} projected back on Ω_{L} to get \mathbf{F}^{L} and $\mathbf{F}^{R} = \mathbf{F}^{M}$ since $p_{M} = p_{R}$.

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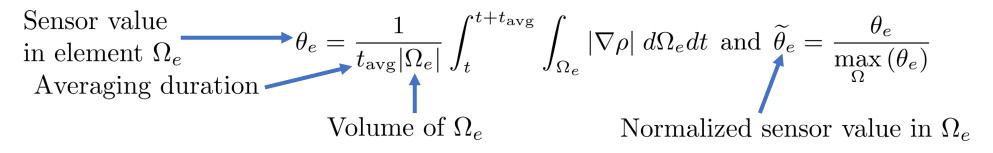




Local polynomial adaptation: setting p distribution

Polynomial distribution within each element can be:

- Set by hand but it is not really practical.
- Set using a sensor based on physical quantities. For instance with norm of density gradient:



• Polynomial distribution is then set using:

$$p_e = p_{min} + \text{INT}\left[\tanh\left(\alpha \widetilde{\theta}_e\right) \left(p_{max} - p_{min}\right) \right]$$

 p_{min} , p_{max} are set by the user and α is here to avoid large degree jumps between elements.

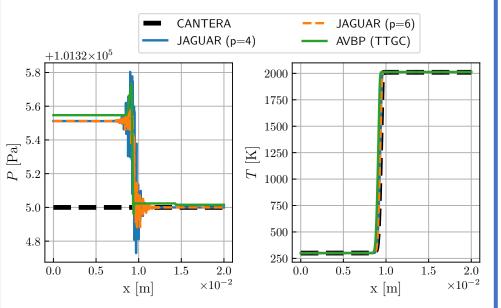






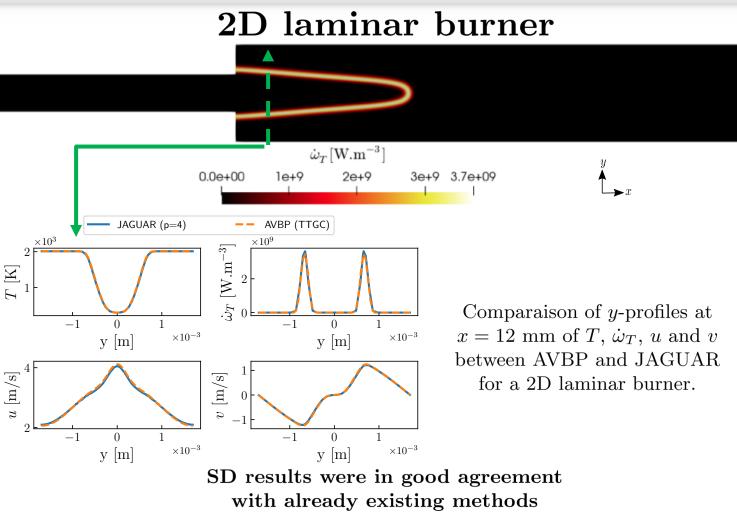
Recent combustion simulations with JAGUAR

1D laminar flame



Comparaison of P and T between CANTERA, AVBP and JAGUAR for a 1D CH4/Air flame.

SD results were in good agreement with already existing methods



10. Marchal et al, Extension of the Spectral Difference method to combustion, Submitted to Journal of Computational Physics. https://arxiv.org/pdf/2112.09636.pdf







High-order methods: general principle

- At first glance, high-order space discretization could mean an increase of the stencil.
- But large stencils are hard to use with unstructured meshes which are essential for complex geometries.
- Thus, high-order methods will have to use a **compact stencil.** Then, they will increase the number of degrees of freedom (DOF) inside each mesh element and most of them follow the same process:
 - 1. Define a **high-order representation of the variables** (mostly polynomial) inside each mesh element using values at the DOF and a **high-order interpolation procedure**.
 - 2. At element boundaries, reconstructed data are not equal: **Riemann solvers** (for convective fluxes) and **Diffusion schemes** (for diffusive fluxes) are used to **handle these discontinuities ensuring conservation.**

Best interest of these methods: manage both mesh refinement noted h and the degree of the local representation of the solution noted p.







Conclusion on polynomial order influence

- Combining accuracy and computational time analysis, for the same level of error, it is faster to use less DOF with high p rather than more DOF with low p.
- For instance, p = 2 in 30900 DOF case and p = 4 in 20100 case have same error but the first one has a turnaroud time 67% higher than the second one.
- Cost per iteration is almost constant with p and not so far than the one of already existing methods.
- Main differences in computational cost come from time step restrictions.





