A Discontinuous Galerkin Front Tracking Method for Two-Phase Flows with Surface Tension

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Abstract

A Discontinuous Galerkin method for solving hyperbolic systems of conservation laws involving interfaces is presented. The interfaces are represented by a collection of element boundaries and their position is updated using an arbitrary Lagrangian-Eulerian method. The motion of the interfaces and the numerical fluxes are obtained by solving a Riemann problem. As the interface is propagated, a simple and effective remeshing technique based on distance functions regenerates the grid to preserve its quality. Compared to other interface capturing techniques, the proposed approach avoids smearing of the jumps across the interface which leads to an improvement in accuracy. Numerical results are presented for several typical two-dimensional interface problems, including flows with surface tension.

Key words: front tracking, discontinuous Galerkin, material interface, mesh generation, surface tension

1 1. INTRODUCTION

Interfaces separating regions in space where sudden changes in material properties or flow conditions occur, are found in many engineering applications including compressible flows with shocks, multi-phase flow problems, and fluid-structure interactions. Consider, for instance, the problem of drop deformation under the presence of surface tension. In this case, the interface separates two different fluids and the effect of surface tension results in a jump of pressure across the interface. A successful numerical method for these problems has to resolve the discontinuities without any oscillations

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while keeping track of the interface propagation. Furthermore, it should be
conservative and be accurate. These often conflicting requirements makes
the design of numerical schemes for these flows particularly challenging.

Essentially, there are two major approaches for handling discontinuous 13 solutions: the discontinuity capturing and the discontinuity tracking meth-14 ods. In the discontinuity capturing methods, the discontinuities are not 15 represented as sharp jumps but smeared over a certain length scale which 16 depends on the grid resolution. The effect of representing the sharp jumps in 17 a continuous manner over the mesh has the effect of reducing the accuracy of 18 the solution to first order. These capturing approaches have been frequently 19 applied and work well for nonlinear shock discontinuities, but they are less 20 successful for problems involving contact discontinuities. For shock discon-21 tinuities, it is easy to maintain the width of the transition layer small as 22 the integration progresses. This is because the nonlinearity in the solution 23 drives the solution to become steeper as time progresses. The situation is 24 very different for contact discontinuities. In such cases, the linear character 25 of these discontinuities causes the width of the transition region to increase 26 monotonically over time and, as a consequence, long time integrations can 27 only be performed with very high order schemes. 28

Alternatively, in the front tracking method, the fronts are considered as 29 internal boundaries and explicitly tracked within the mesh. This provides 30 a much better resolution of the jumps across the interfaces but poses some 31 serious meshing chellenges. The first implementation of a front tracking 32 method was carried out by Glimm et al [11] for fluid discontinuities in two 33 space dimensions, with extension to higher dimensions in [12]. In their 34 approach, the sharp jump across the interface is handled by a Riemann 35 solver which utilizes ghost cells where the unknowns are extrapolated across 36 the interface. The use of extrapolation combined with ghost cells was further 37 developed in the ghost fluid method (GFM) proposed by Fedkiw et al [5] 38 and subsequently modified by Liu *et al* [22] for strong shock interactions. 39 In the latter, the interface is represented by a level set function and a band 40 of ghost cells is created at either side of the interface. The GFM has been 41 shown to work well on a range of problems involving material interfaces 42 and interaction with shock waves, and it is easily extended to problems in 43 higher dimensions. However, the GFM method and its variants are not 44 conservative and are only first order accurate due to their treatment of the 45 discontinuities. 46

A number of conservative front tracking methods have been developed, for exampleby Glimm *et al* [9], Mao [25], and Gloth *et al* [13]. Glimm *et al al.* [9] presented a scheme which tracks the discontinuities sharply while

preserving the conserved quantities at a discrete level. It was further de-50 veloped and modified in [10] with improved accuracy and various numerical 51 experiments in one and two dimensions. This scheme is conservative with 52 second order accuracy in the interior region and first order accuracy at the 53 front. A general problem for all front tracking schemes is the handling of 54 the topology of the front. In [10], the front is handled by a technique which 55 is straight-forward in one space dimension but more complex in higher di-56 mensions. Recently, Liu et al [23] proposes and extension of the method to 57 consider system of nonlinear conservation laws in n dimensions. Another 58 approach to handle the front using finite volumes on unstructured mesh 59 methods is presented in Gloth et al [13]. Here, the location, geometry, and 60 propagation of the fronts are described by the level set method. 61

In this article, we present a front tracking method for tracking discon-62 tinuities using the discontinuous Galerkin (DG) method. The interface is 63 explicitly represented via internal boundaries in the DG mesh. Within each 64 fluid domain an Arbitrary Eulerian-Lagrangian (ALE) method is used to ac-65 count for the grid deformation. The motion of the interface between the 66 different fluid region is either prescribed or obtained by solving a Riemann 67 problems [40] for the moving velocity. As the interface is propagating, the 68 computational mesh deforms and needs to be modified. This is done effi-69 ciently using a mesh generation technique [27] for implicit geometries de-70 scribed by signed distance functions. One of the main advantages of the 71 proposed approach is the incorporation of the front tracking technique into 72 73 the context of high order discontinuous Galerkin methods. The interface is sharply tracked while conservation errors are minimized. We present several 74 numerical examples aimed at demonstrating the capabilities of the presented 75 technique. In particular, we consider the problem of drop deformation under 76 the effect of acoustic excitation. 77

78 2. THE DISCONTINUOUS GALERKIN FRONT TRACKING 79 METHOD

80 2.1. The Discontinuous Galerkin ALE Formulation

81 Consider first a first order system of conservation laws

$$\boldsymbol{u}_t + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{u}) = 0, \tag{1}$$

over the domain Ω with the appropriate boundary conditions applied on the domain boundary $\partial\Omega$, and the material interface ψ separating two regions containing fluid with different properties, as illustrated in figure



Figure 1: Computational domain Ω with interface ψ

⁸⁵ 1. Here, $\boldsymbol{u}(\boldsymbol{x},t) = \{u_i(\boldsymbol{x},t)\}_{i=1}^m$ is the conservative state vector with m⁸⁶ components and $\boldsymbol{x} = (x_1,\ldots,x_d)$ is the position vector in *d*-dimensional ⁸⁷ space. The fluxes associated to the conserved variables are denoted by ⁸⁸ $\boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{u}) = \{F_{ij}(\boldsymbol{u})\}_{i,j=1,1}^{m,d}$.

At any given time, we assume a triangulation \mathcal{T}_h of the domain Ω into elements $\Omega = \bigcup_{\kappa \in \mathcal{T}_h} \kappa$, such that interface ψ can be represented as a collection of element edges. In addition, we consider the discontinuous finite element space associated with \mathcal{T}_h ,

$$\mathcal{V}_{h}^{p}(\Omega) = \{ \boldsymbol{v} \in L^{2}(\Omega)^{m} \mid \boldsymbol{v}|_{\kappa} \in [\mathcal{P}^{p}(\kappa)]^{m}, \kappa \in \mathcal{T}_{h} \},$$
(2)

⁹³ where $\mathcal{P}^{p}(\kappa)$ is the space of polynomials of degree p on the element κ . At a ⁹⁴ given instant, we consider an element κ with boundary $\partial \kappa$, deforming in time ⁹⁵ with according to a velocity field $\boldsymbol{\nu} = \boldsymbol{\nu}(\boldsymbol{x},t)$. To obtain a discontinuous ⁹⁶ Galerkin formulation, we consider the following variational statement de-⁹⁷ rived from equation (1) over a time changing element $\kappa(t)$: find $\boldsymbol{u}_{h} \in \mathcal{V}_{h}^{p}(\Omega)$ ⁹⁸ such that for each $\kappa \in \mathcal{T}_{h}$,

$$\int_{\boldsymbol{\kappa}(t)} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}_h}{\partial t} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} + \int_{\boldsymbol{\kappa}(t)} \left(\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{u}_h) \right) \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} = 0, \tag{3}$$

99 for all test functions $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathcal{V}_h^p$.

¹⁰⁰ From the Reynolds transport theorem, we can write

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{u}_h \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} = \int_{\kappa(t)} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}_h}{\partial t} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} + \int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{u}_h \cdot \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{v}}{\partial t} \, d\boldsymbol{x} + \oint_{\partial \kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{u}_h \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, \nu_n ds, \quad (4)$$

where $\nu_n = \boldsymbol{\nu} \cdot \boldsymbol{n}$ is the normal velocity of the element interface. Substituting (4) into (3) and integrating by parts, we obtain

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{u}_h \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} = \int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{u}_h \cdot \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{v}}{\partial t} \, d\boldsymbol{x} + \int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{u}_h) : \nabla \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} \\
- \oint_{\partial\kappa(t)} (\mathcal{F}_n(\boldsymbol{u}_h) - \boldsymbol{u}_h \nu_n) \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, ds.$$
(5)

The discontinuous Galerkin formulation for a moving grid can now be expressed as follows: find $\boldsymbol{u}_h \in \mathcal{V}_h^p$ such that for each $\kappa \in \mathcal{T}_h$ and $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathcal{V}_h^p$,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\kappa} \boldsymbol{u}_{h} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} - \int_{\kappa} \boldsymbol{u}_{h} \cdot \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{v}}{\partial t} \, d\boldsymbol{x} - \int_{\kappa} \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{u}_{h}) : \nabla \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} \\
+ \oint_{\partial \kappa} \mathcal{F}(\boldsymbol{u}_{h}^{+}, \boldsymbol{u}_{h}^{-}, \boldsymbol{n}, \nu_{n}) \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, ds = 0,$$
(6)

where the numerical flux $\mathcal{F}(\boldsymbol{u}_h^+, \boldsymbol{u}_h^-, \boldsymbol{n}, \nu_n)$ approximates $\boldsymbol{F}_n(\boldsymbol{u}) - \boldsymbol{u}\nu_n$ at interior element boundaries or domain boundaries with normal velocity ν_n . The ()⁺ and ()⁻ notion indicates the trace of the solution taken from the interior and exterior of the element, respectively, and \boldsymbol{n} is the outward normal vector to the boundary of the element. Along the domain boundaries, the exterior state of the solution is constructed by weakly imposing the boundary conditions.

As the test functions v move with the grid velocity, their substantial derivatives vanish with the grid motion, i.e. dv/dt = 0. Therefore, we have

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{v}}{\partial t} = -\boldsymbol{\nu} \cdot \nabla \boldsymbol{v}. \tag{7}$$

Equation (6) can then be rewritten as: find $\boldsymbol{u}_h \in \mathcal{V}_h^p$ such that for each $\kappa \in \mathcal{T}_h$ and $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathcal{V}_h^p$,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{u}_h \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} = \int_{\kappa(t)} \left(\boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{u}_h) - \boldsymbol{u}_h \boldsymbol{\nu} \right) : \nabla \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} - \oint_{\partial \kappa(t)} \mathcal{F}(\boldsymbol{u}_h^+, \boldsymbol{u}_h^-, \boldsymbol{n}, \nu_n) \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, ds$$
(8)

¹¹⁶ We note that in the above expression, the original flux function is modified ¹¹⁷ to reflect the movement of the grid. It can be seen that the DG front tracking ¹¹⁸ formulation reduces to its standard DG form if the mesh is fixed ($\nu = 0$). The variational equation (8) is enforced separately in each element, and the coupling with the neighboring elements occurs via the numerical fluxes. The numerical fluxes and moving velocities along the tracked front are obtained by solving Riemann problems at the element interfaces.

2.2. Discontinuous Galerkin ALE Formulation the Compressible Navier Stokes Equations

Here, we want to augment the original system of first order conservation laws (1) to include viscous effects. To this end, we write the Navier-Stokes equations

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{F}^{\text{inv}}(\boldsymbol{u}) = \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{F}^{\text{vis}}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{q})$$

$$\boldsymbol{q} - \nabla \boldsymbol{u} = \boldsymbol{0}$$
(9)

over the domain Ω with suitable boundary and initial conditions. Here, *u* is the conservative state vector which has density, momentum and total energy as components, $F^{\text{inv}}(u)$ are the inviscid fluxes and $F_i^{\text{vis}}(u, q)$ denote the viscous fluxes. Note that as is customary in many DG formulations for elliptic problems (e.g. [3]), we have introduced the velocity gradient q as a new independent variable and thus cast the Navier-Stokes equations as a system involving only first order derivatives.

The discontinuous Galerkin formulation for the compressible Navier-Stokes equations (9) on a moving grid becomes: find $\boldsymbol{u}_h \in \mathcal{V}_h^p$ and $\boldsymbol{q}_h \in (\mathcal{V}_h^p)^d$ such that for each element $\kappa \in \mathcal{T}_h$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{u}_{h} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} = \int_{\kappa(t)} \left(\boldsymbol{F}^{\text{inv}}(\boldsymbol{u}_{h}) - \boldsymbol{\nu}\boldsymbol{u}_{h} \right) : \nabla \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} - \oint_{\partial \kappa(t)} \mathcal{F}^{\text{inv}}(\boldsymbol{u}_{h}^{+}, \boldsymbol{u}_{h}^{-}, \boldsymbol{n}, \boldsymbol{\nu}_{n}) \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, ds$$

$$- \int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{F}^{\text{vis}}(\boldsymbol{u}_{h}) : \nabla \boldsymbol{v} d\boldsymbol{x} + \oint_{\partial \kappa} \mathcal{F}^{\text{vis}}(\boldsymbol{u}_{h}^{+}, \boldsymbol{u}_{h}^{-}, \boldsymbol{q}_{h}^{+}, \boldsymbol{q}_{h}^{-}, \boldsymbol{n}) \cdot \boldsymbol{v} \, ds,$$

$$\int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{q}_{h} : \boldsymbol{p} \, d\boldsymbol{x} = -\int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{u}_{h} \cdot (\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{p}) \, d\boldsymbol{x} + \oint_{\partial \kappa} \mathcal{U}(\boldsymbol{u}_{h}^{+}, \boldsymbol{u}_{h}^{-}, \boldsymbol{n}) : \boldsymbol{p} \, ds$$
(10)

for all test functions $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathcal{V}_h^p$ and $\boldsymbol{p} \in (\mathcal{V}_h^p)^d$. In the above equations, the inviscid numerical flux, $\mathcal{F}^{\text{inv}}(\boldsymbol{u}_h^+, \boldsymbol{u}_h^-, \boldsymbol{n}, \nu_n)$ is computed using the Roe or the Lax-Friedrich formula, except for the elements along the tracked front

where the Riemann problem is solved to obtain the flux across the inter-141 face and the propagation speed of the front. The viscous numerical fluxes, 142 $\mathcal{F}^{\mathrm{vis}}(\boldsymbol{u}_h^+, \boldsymbol{u}_h^-, \boldsymbol{q}_h^+, \boldsymbol{q}_h^-, \boldsymbol{n})$ and the numerical flux $\mathcal{U}(\boldsymbol{u}_h^+, \boldsymbol{u}_h^-, \boldsymbol{n})$ are defined ac-143 cording to the LDG scheme [3]. Numerical quadratures [36] are used to 144 evaluate the volume and surface integrals. Finally, we note that, by proper 145 choice of the numerical fluxes it is possible to eliminate q_h the discretized 146 form of the above equations and hence cast the system as a set of coupled 147 ODE's for the degrees of freedom associated to u_h . These system of ODE's 148 is then integrated using a Runge-Kutta method. 149

150 2.3. The Geometric Conservation Law

In simulations of flow problems involving moving boundaries, it is im-151 portant to assure that a numerical scheme exactly reproduces a constant so-152 lution. This preservation of constant solution is referred to as the Geometric 153 Conservation Law [39], which simply states that a solution of a uniform flow 154 under the numerical discretization scheme should be preserved exactly for 155 an arbitrary mesh motion. Mathematically, it must be shown that the ALE 156 formulation (8) and (10) satisfy the uniform flow exactly. However, since 157 for a uniform flow the viscous fluxes vanish, we need to consider only the 158 inviscid of equation (8). Inserting a constant solution, $u(x,t) = u_0$, into (8) 159 and using the consistency property of the numerical fluxes, 160

$$\mathcal{F}(\boldsymbol{u}_0, \boldsymbol{u}_0, \boldsymbol{n}, \nu_n) = (\boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{u}_0) - \boldsymbol{u}_0 \boldsymbol{\nu}) \cdot \boldsymbol{n}, \tag{11}$$

¹⁶¹ we obtain the following expression after rearrangement

$$\boldsymbol{u_{0}} \cdot \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{v} d\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{u}_{0}) : \left(\int_{\kappa(t)} \nabla \boldsymbol{v} \, d\boldsymbol{x} - \oint_{\partial\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\nu} \cdot \boldsymbol{n} ds \right) + \boldsymbol{u}_{0} \cdot \left(\oint_{\partial\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\nu} \cdot \boldsymbol{n} ds - \int_{\kappa(t)} \nabla \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nu} d\boldsymbol{x} \right).$$
(12)

Applying the divergence theorem, the integrals associated with the flux func-tion vanish:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{v} d\boldsymbol{x} = \oint_{\partial \kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\nu} \cdot \boldsymbol{n} ds - \int_{\kappa(t)} \nabla \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nu} d\boldsymbol{x}.$$
(13)

¹⁶⁴ The time derivative of the integral on the left can be further expanded as

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{v} d\boldsymbol{x} = \int_{\kappa(t)} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{v}}{\partial t} d\boldsymbol{x} + \oint_{\partial \kappa(t)} \boldsymbol{v} \boldsymbol{\nu} \cdot \boldsymbol{n} ds, \qquad (14)$$

and substituting (14) into (13), we have

$$\int_{\kappa(t)} \left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{v}}{\partial t} + \nabla \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nu} \right) d\boldsymbol{x} = 0.$$
(15)

As expected, this equation is always satisfied in the continuum case due to the fact that the basis functions move with the grid velocity as stated in (7). However, in the discrete case, some small errors can be introduced due to inexact integration. As shown in the numerical examples, these errors are very small. If necessary, it is actually possible to correct for this errors as described in [28], at the expense of introducing an additional equation.

172 2.4. The Interface Tracking Technique

The above expressions (8) and (10) define an algorithm to advance the numerical solution u_h provided the grid velocity ν is known. In some situations however, we are interested in interfaces which deform according to the solution velocity field.

177 2.4.1. Interface Representation

The interface is approximated by a collection of element boundary edges. We use an isoparametric mapping with nodal shape functions to map the the reference triangle into the actual element [42]. Therefore, the shape of the actual elements and the interface is determined by the node positions. The use of higher order polynomials as shown in Figure 2 for p = 3 leads to curved approximations of the interface.

Once the interface velocity is known, the position of the nodes which define the interface can be obtained by solving an ordinary differential equation in time,

$$\frac{d\boldsymbol{X}_{\psi}^{i}}{dt} = \boldsymbol{\nu}^{i} , \qquad \text{for} \quad i = 1, \dots, N_{\psi}$$
(16)

where \mathbf{X}_{ψ}^{i} and $\boldsymbol{\nu}^{i}$ for $i = 1, ..., N_{\psi}$ are the positions and velocities, respectively, of the nodes on the interface and N_{ψ} is the number of mesh nodes on the interface. The above equation is integrated using the same Runge-Kutta time stepping employed for governing equations (10).



Figure 2: Isoparametric mapping from reference element

¹⁹¹ 2.4.2. Interface Propagation Velocity

Except for the problems such as prescribed convection where the grid velocity is known beforehand, we determine the gird velocity at the interface by solving a Riemann problem in the normal direction to the interface.

The moving velocity must satisfy the Rankine-Hugoniot condition for the jump condition between the left (L) and right (R) states at a node which lies on the interface. The jump condition can be written in the following form

$$[\boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{u})\cdot\boldsymbol{n}-\nu_{n}\boldsymbol{u}]_{L}^{R}=0, \qquad (17)$$

where ν_n is the normal component of the interface velocity. This can be solved for ν_n with the observation that the pressure and the normal velocity across the interface are constant [40]. Once ν_n is determined, the interface velocity is set to be normal to the interface.

In the case of a nodal points located at the element vertices, the velocity at the node is double-valued. In this case, the interface velocity is simply constructed from the neighboring normal velocities (ν_{n_1} and ν_{n_2}) so that its projections on the normal directions of the neighboring edges (n_1 and n_2) are preserved as depicted in Figure 3.That is,

$$\boldsymbol{\nu}_i \cdot \boldsymbol{n}_1 = \boldsymbol{\nu}_{n_1} \tag{18}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\nu}_i \cdot \boldsymbol{n}_2 = \boldsymbol{\nu}_{n_2}. \tag{19}$$

204 2.5. Automatic Mesh Regeneration

Once the velocity of the nodes at the interface is determined, we proceed to determining the velocity of the remaining nodes in the mesh with the objective of preserving a good mesh quality. At each timestep, we examine the



Figure 3: Velocity construction at element vertices where the interface velocity is projected from neigboring normal velocities.

mesh and perform the necessary mesh modifications such that the quality of the grid is preserved. A number of element shape parameters have been proposed for assessing the quality of a mesh [7]. For two-dimensional triangulations, a commonly used quantity which we have found to work well is the ratio of the inradius, r, to the circumradius, R, of the triangle,

$$q(\kappa) = \frac{2r}{R}.$$
(20)

This quantity has been shown to be a good measurement of the quality of element shapes.

In this work, the distance function mesh generation technique proposed 215 in [27] is used for the mesh improvement. The inputs to the generator are the 216 signed distance function $d(\mathbf{X})$ of the boundary and the mesh size function 217 $h(\mathbf{X})$ giving the desired size of the elements. Once the motion of the nodes 218 of the interface has been determined, the motion of the remaining nodes is 219 determined by solving a force equilibrium system at the nodes. The force 220 acting on an edge is proportional to the difference between the actual length 221 l of the edge and its desired length l_0 which is set by the mesh size function 222 $h(\mathbf{X})$ evaluated at the mid point of the edge. There are several alternatives 223 for the force function $f(l, l_0)$ acting on each edge. In this work, a model of 224 linear spring is used to describe the force function, acting as the repulsive 225 forces. That is, 226

$$f(l, l_0) = \begin{cases} k(l_0 - l) & \text{if } l < l_0, \\ 0 & \text{if } l \ge l_0. \end{cases}$$
(21)

To solve for the force equilibrium, the forces at all the nodes are added to get $F(\mathbf{X}_{nod})$ and obtain a nonlinear system of equations $F(\mathbf{X}_{nod}) = \mathbf{0}$ for the node positions, X_{nod} . A stationary solution of the system of ODEs

$$\frac{d\boldsymbol{X}_{\text{nod}}}{dt^*} = F(\boldsymbol{X}_{\text{nod}}), \quad t^* \ge 0$$
(22)

is found using the forward Euler method. After each time step, any point
that moved outside of the geometry is projected back to the boundary by a
reaction force applied normal to the boundary.

During the mesh deformation iteration, we examine the mesh and if 233 necessary perform some topological changes. In the original mesh generator 234 [27] this was done using Delaunay triangulations, but this can be rather 235 complicated and inefficient for moving interfaces. Instead local operations 236 consisting of edge flipping, node addition and deletion are implemented to 237 improve the mesh quality. The mesh modification procedures continue until 238 all the elements satisfy a preset threshold for the mesh quality. We note 239 that for most timesteps, the mesh modification process is very inexpensive 240 since no topological changes take place and only a few relaxation iterations 241 $(\sim 1-2)$ are required to solve for the interior node positions (22). 242

243 2.5.1. Edge Flipping



Figure 4: Edge flipping. Left: initial triangles κ_a and κ_b with the circumradius r of the triangle κ_a . Right: after flipping

The criterion used for edge flipping is that the circumcircle of any trian-244 gle should not contain any other triangles in the mesh, and if it does, the 245 shared edge between two triangles is flipped and the velocity field is updated 246 correspondingly. An example is shown in Figure (4), where the third node 247 of triangle κ_b is inside the circumcircle of triangle κ_a . This is handled by 248 flipping the shared edge between the two triangles and updating the velocity 249 field correspondingly. In the rare situations where the edge to be flipped is 250 an interface edge, then this operation is not performed. 251



Figure 5: Node addition. Left: initial grid with a large edge between κ_a and κ_b . Right: After splitting, the long edge is split and the associated new elements (κ_{a1} , κ_{a2} , κ_{b1} and κ_{b2}) are formed.

252 2.5.2. Node addition

It is sometimes necessary to add points to the mesh. If any edge is too long compared to the desired value based on the distance function evaluated at the midpoint, then the midpoint is inserted as a new mesh point and the element is split into two elements as shown in Figure 5.

257 2.5.3. Node deletion



Figure 6: Node deletion. Left: Initial mesh with short edge (s). Right: Deleting of intermediate node (I) and reconnecting associated edges.

Conversely, if an edge is too short compared to its expected value, a node is removed from the grid and the edge is collapsed as shown in Figure 6.

260 2.6. Solution Updating

When the mesh connectivities are changed due to the mesh improvement operations described above, the solution has to be reconstructed on the modified mesh such that the conservation of the solution is maintained, that is

$$\sum_{\kappa'_i \in \mathcal{T}'_{h_{\kappa'_i}}} \int u'_h d\boldsymbol{x} = \sum_{\kappa_i \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int u_h d\boldsymbol{x}, \qquad (23)$$

where \mathcal{T}_h is the original triangulation and $\mathcal{T'}_h$ is the triangulation after the mesh modifications. Similarly, \boldsymbol{u}_h and \boldsymbol{u}'_h , represent the solutions on \mathcal{T}_h and \mathcal{T}'_h , respectively. We obtain an approximation to (23) by interpolating the values of \boldsymbol{u}_h on the nodes of the elements of \mathcal{T}'_h and performing the following least squares projection: find $\boldsymbol{u}'_h \in \mathcal{V}'_h^p$ such that for all $\boldsymbol{v}' \in \mathcal{V}'_h^p$

$$\int_{\kappa'} \boldsymbol{u}_h' \boldsymbol{v}' \, d\boldsymbol{x} = \int_{\kappa'} \boldsymbol{u}_h \boldsymbol{v}' \, d\boldsymbol{x}, \quad \text{for all} \quad \kappa' \in \mathcal{T}_h'. \tag{24}$$

Here, $v' \in \mathcal{V}'_h^p$ is the DG space associated with the modified triangulation \mathcal{T}'_h . This interpolation procedure followed by the projection is very efficient but may introduce some conservation errors. Our numerical experiments indicate that these errors can be made very small when the solution is sufficiently resolved.

275 3. NUMERICAL RESULTS

276 3.1. Front tracking for scalar problems in two dimensions

277 Example 3.1. Linear Convection

This example considers the scalar convection problem in two space dimensions proposed by Zalesak in [41] and is a standard test for front tracking and capturing schemes. Consider the convection equation

$$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{U} \nabla \Phi = 0 \tag{25}$$

in the domain $(x, y) \in [-1, 1] \times [-1, 1]$. A slotted circle *C* of radius r = 0.3is centered at (0.0, 0.0). The width of the slot is 0.15 and the height of the slot is 0.15. The velocity field is $\boldsymbol{U} = (u, v)^T$ is given by

$$u = \frac{\pi}{3.14}(-y)$$
$$v = \frac{\pi}{3.14}x$$

²⁸⁴ and the initial condition is given by the indicator function

$$\Phi_0(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1.0 & \text{if } (x,y) \in C\\ 0.0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(26)

285

The slotted circle will rotate about (0.0, 0.0) with velocity U. In this case we want to refine the mesh near the interface and thus the mesh size



Figure 7: Example 3.1: Zalesak problem. Grids and solutions over one period using the cubic interpolations and a fourth order Runke-Kutta method.

function $h(\mathbf{X})$ is specified as $h(\mathbf{X}) = \min(1 + 1.5|\psi(\mathbf{X})|, 1.5)$, where $\psi(\mathbf{X})$ 288 is the distance function of the interface. The grids and the solutions are 289 shown over one period of evolution of the slotted circle using the cubic 290 polynomials to represent the spatial variation of the solution and a fourth 291 order Runge-Kutta scheme to perform the time integration. The difficulty 292 of this problem is to accurately follow the interface as it rotates around the 293 center. It can be seen from the presented result that the interface is tracked 294 very accurately. Compared to results using the level set method, e.g. in 295 [37], our high order method performs much better in terms of tracking the 296 interface and maintaining the conservation of the solution. 297

298 3.2. The Front Tracking Method for Flows with Surface Tension

In some problems involving fluids of different properties densities and viscosities, the damping effect of surface tension becomes more important than that of the viscosity. The presence of surface tension results in an unbalanced force acting on the interface. The inadequate treatment of these forces can affect the accuracy of the tracking scheme and cause spurious currents around the interface region.

For the tracking of interfaces in the presence of surface tension, Riemann problems at the interface have to be solved to compute the numerical flux and the interface motion taking into account the added forces due to surface
tension [40]. Some examples of interface tracking with surface tension are
presented below, including drop deformations and bubble oscillations under
acoustic waves.

311 3.2.1. Surface Tension and Curvature

The introduction of surface tension requires the calculation of the sur-312 face tension force which is a function of the interface curvature. The surface 313 tension force is considered as a distributed external force applied at the in-314 terface. The jump in pressure due to the surface tension must be satisfied 315 across the interface, by incorporating it into the Riemann solver together 316 with the Rankine-Hugoniot condition in order to solve for the flux across 317 the interface and the moving velocity of the interface. Since the interface 318 is defined by piecewise polynomial segments which are only continuous and 319 typically have small discontinuities in the derivatives, we have found it nec-320 essary to interpolate a smooth function across the interface nodes in order to 321 obtain accurate surface tension approximations. We use a B-spline interpo-322 lation [29] through the interface points. The curvature at a particular point 323 on the interface is computed by projecting that point to the B-spline curve 324 and then directly evaluating the curvature at that point on the B-spline. 325

326 3.2.2. Applications

327 Example 3.2. Flow under surface tension

We consider the flow in the square domain of $[-1,1] \times [-1,1]$. A circle-328 shaped membrane of zero thickness with a radius of R = 0.3 centered at the 329 origin is embedded in the flow, separating the bubble from the surround-330 ing fluid. The flow is governed by compressible Navier-Stokes equations 331 charecteried by the non-dimensional Reynolds number $Re = \frac{\bar{u}R}{\mu}$ where \bar{u} is 332 the characteristic velocity and mu is the fluid viscosity. In this case, the 333 fluids inside and outside the bubble are of the same type. The effect of the 334 membrane is modeled by the surface tension σ giving rise to the surface 335 tension force acting on the flow, 336

$$\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{X}) = \kappa \sigma \boldsymbol{n} \delta(\boldsymbol{X} - \boldsymbol{X}_{\psi}), \qquad (27)$$

where κ is the surface curvature, \boldsymbol{n} is the interface normal vector and δ is two dimensional Kronecker delta function. The flow is initially at rest with unit pressure and density ($P_0 = \rho_0 = 1.0$). At steady state, the pressure jump ΔP across the interface is given as

$$\Delta P = \sigma \kappa = \sigma/R. \tag{28}$$

In this example, we want to verify that the above expression is satisfied
across the interface by comparing the numerical result with the analytical
expression.

Table 1: Pressure jump and spurious currents around the circular bubble, Re = 100, using cubic interpolations

Grid size	No elements	ΔP	$\epsilon_{\Delta P}$
0.1	365	0.1531	0.0057
0.075	645	0.1492	0.0018
0.05	1413	0.1485	0.0011
0.035	2816	0.1478	0.0004

(a) Pressure jump error for k = 1/Ca = 10

Grid size	$ oldsymbol{u} _{max}$	Ca	$ oldsymbol{u} _{max}$
0.1	2.8200E-04	1/50	7.7872E-004
0.075	2.5386E-04	1/20	6.3902E-004
0.05	2.3492E-04	1/10	2.5386 E-004
0.035	2.1325E-04	1/5	1.3204 E-004

(b)	Spurious	current
	1	

In Figure 8, the solutions for the pressure at different times are shown for 344 Re = 100 on a grid with 365 elements using cubic polynomials to represent 345 the solution inside each element at the capillary number of the flow Ca =346 1/10 computed with respect to the speed of sound, c, as $Ca = c\mu/\sigma$. It can 347 be observed that there is a sharp jump in pressure across the interface which 348 can be tracked explicitly, and that the interface and the jump are sharply 349 captured. In Table 2(a), the pressure jumps at steady state are computed on 350 different grids and compared with the analytical results. The results show 351 that the jump across the interface converges to the analytical value as the 352 grid is refined. The convergence rate of the pressure jump, and the error, 353 $\epsilon_{\Delta P}$, between the numerical result and the analytical value obtained from 354 (28) is found to be more than second order with respect to the grid size (the 355 exponent is about 2.35). 356



Figure 8: Example 3.2: Circular bubble under surface tension. Pressure field at different time steps with Re = 100, k = 10, using cubic polynomials on a grid of 347 elements



Figure 9: Example 3.2: Mass conservation inside the bubble under the effect of surface tension. Note at the small mass conservation error.



Figure 10: Example 3.2: Circular bubble under surface tension. Steady solution of pressure field with different values of capillary number, cubic elements on the grid of 347 elements

It is also interesting to study the velocity field around the bubble, which 357 is expected to vanish at steady state. However, as the bubble is relaxed to 358 a circular stable shape there is still a small amplitude velocity field around 359 the interface, called a spurious current, due to the imbalance between the 360 stresses at the interface. It was shown in [32] that this spurious current 361 scales with the surface tension and the viscosity as $|u|_{max} = C\sigma/\mu$ where C 362 is a constant. This is equivalent to having a constant value of $|\boldsymbol{u}|_{max}\mu/\sigma$. 363 The spurious current was computed as the norm of the velocity field at 364 steady state and is shown in Table 2(b) for various grid sizes and different 365 capillary numbers. From Table 2(b), it is observed that the spurious current 366 is approximately constant on different grid sizes at a given viscosity and 367 surface tension corresponding to the Reynolds number and the capillary 368 number of Re = 100 and k = 10. The experiment was then repeated on a 369 fixed grid of 645 elements and Re = 100 but with different values of capillary 370 numbers. The spurious current is then found to scale with the inverse of the 371 capillary number as predicted in [32]. 372

The conservation of mass inside the circular bubble is also measured and shown in Figure 9 and observed to be very small. The steady state solution for pressure obtained for two values of the capillary number and shown in Figure 10.

377 Example 3.3. Oscillation of a drop

In the next example, we study the oscillation of a drop under surface tension. This problem has been studied extensively before, and Rayleigh [31] derived the formulation for the oscillation of cylindrical jets under capillary force. Under a small perturbation in the plane perpendicular to the axis of the cylindrical droplet, the frequency ω_n of the oscillation at a particular mode *l* depends on the surface tension σ , the density ρ , and the unperturbed radius of the drop R_0 as follows,

$$\omega_n^2 = (l^3 - l) \frac{\sigma}{\rho R_0^3},$$
(29)

where the surface of the drop is given in polar coordinates by

$$r = R_0 + \epsilon_R \cos(l\theta). \tag{30}$$

The oscillation period is then computed as $T = 2\pi/\omega$. In the first mode (l = 1) the drop is moving rigidly and there is no deformation in the drop shape. For the second mode (l = 2), the drop has the shape of an ellipsoid in which the major axis alternates between the horizontal and the vertical axis. For l = 3 and l = 4, the drop has triangular and square shapes with rounded corners. Fritts *et al* [8] extended the Rayleigh theory to apply to the oscillation of a drop in an external fluid, giving a frequency of

$$\omega_n^2 = (l^3 - l) \frac{\sigma}{(\rho_d + \rho_o) R_0^3},\tag{31}$$

where ρ_d and ρ_o are the density inside and outside of the drop, respectively. 392 We consider a deformable bubble which has an initial ellipsoidal shape 393 with major axis a = 0.45 and minor axis b = 0.3. The computational domain 394 is $[-1,1] \times [-1,1]$. The ellipsoidal bubble of density $\rho_d = 1.0$ and pressure 395 $P_d = 1.0$ is surrounded by the fluid of the same density $\rho_0 = 1.0$ and pressure 396 $P_0 = 1.0$. The flow is initially at rest with $u_0 = v_0 = 0.0$. Under the effect 397 of surface tension and viscosity the bubble oscillates and finally converge to 398 a circular shape. 399

The profile of the pressure is presented in Figure 11 at various times on 400 a grid with 323 elements. It can be observed that the sharp jump due to 401 surface tension is well resolved. In Figure 12b, the shape of the bubble is 402 shown at different times for Reynolds number Re = 50 and capillary number 403 k = 5. The interface is initially at rest in the ellipsoidal shape with zero 404 kinetic energy. Under the effect of surface tension the bubble oscillates until 405 the equilibrium is reached. The damping effect from the viscosity results in 406 a decay of the oscillation amplitude. 407

Figure 12a shows the evolution of the radius of the drop in the x and the y directions. Under the above described flow conditions the Rayleigh frequency and oscillation period can be calculated from (31) as

$$\omega_n = 1.5457, \qquad T_n = 2\pi/\omega_n = 4.0648.$$
 (32)

From the numerical result, it is found that the oscillation frequency is $\omega =$ 411 1.4710 and the time period is T = 4.2713. This frequency has been obtained 412 by fitting the response of a damped linear to the motion shown in Figure 12 413 therefore taking into account the effect of damping. The error in oscillation 414 frequency is attributed to the effect of viscosity, which resulted in a damping 415 coefficient of $\xi = 0.0325$ and to the finite amplitude of the oscillations. We 416 note that Rayleigh theory is only applicable for small perturbation, namely 417 linear behavior. 418

Example 3.4. Drop deformation and oscillation under acoustic wave

The deformation of immiscible drops in fluid flow is studied in this example, which has been previously explored both experimentally and numer-



Figure 11: Example 3.3: Oscillation of ellipsoidal bubble under surface tension. Pressure field at different time steps with Re = 50, k = 5, using cubic polynomials on a grid of 323 elements.



(a) Radius in the x and the y directions (b) Ellipse shapes

Figure 12: Example 3.3: Oscillation of an ellipsoidal bubble under surface tension. Deformation of the ellipse membrane under surface tension, Re = 50, k = 5, DGMP3 on the grid of 323 elements.

ically [35, 21]. A suspended drop containing a fluid of different density and possibly different viscosity is subjected to an acoustic wave. Surface tension is applied at the interface separating the drop from the outside fluid. When the frequency of the acoustic wave matches the natural frequency of the system (31), which is dependent on the tension parameter, the drop enters into resonance.

We considering a drop of undeformed radius R_0 placed at the center of 429 the domain. The drop, having the values of density ρ_d , viscosity μ_d , and the 430 surface tension σ , is suspended in the flow of density ρ_o and viscosity μ_o . The 431 surface tension force acting on the fluid is given by (27). The acoustic wave 432 travels from the left to the right boundaries. Rigid boundary conditions are 433 applied at the top and the bottom boundaries. Outflow boundary conditions 434 are specified at the right boundary. On the left boundary, the acoustic wave 435 conditions of pressure, density, and velocity are specified as follows, 436

$$P(t) = P_0(1 + \bar{P}cos(\omega t))$$

$$\rho(t) = \rho_0 (P(t)/P_0)^{1/\gamma}$$

$$u(t) = u_0 + \frac{2}{\gamma - 1}(c(t) - c_0)$$

$$v(t) = 0$$

(33)

where \overline{P} is the amplitude of the wave and ω is the wave frequency. P_0 , ρ_0 and c_0 are the pressure, density, and sound speed of the flow outside the drop. ⁴³⁹ The acoustic impact is characterized by the Strouhal number $(St = \frac{\omega R}{\bar{u}})$. In ⁴⁴⁰ this example, we set $P_0 = \rho_0 = 1.0$ and the fluid inside and outside of the ⁴⁴¹ drop are taken to be the same with $\mu_0 = \mu_d$.

Figure 13 shows a series of pressure distributions at different times with 442 Re = 100, k = 10 and $St = 0.25\pi$ using cubic elements. The flow is initially 443 at rest $(u_0 = v_0 = 0.0)$. The simulation is done on a grid of 347 elements. It 444 can be seen that the pressure jump across the interface is very well resolved 445 while the front is explicitly tracked. The deformed drop shape is quantified 446 and measured by the radii in the x and the y directions, r_x and r_y . In 447 Figure 14 the radius of the drop is plotted with time at the different values 448 of Strouhal number $St = 0.15\pi$ and 0.5π . It is known that the pulsation of a 449 deformed drop (ρ_d) surrounded by another fluid (ρ_0) is given by the Rayleigh 450 formula (31). In this case the second mode of oscillation (l = 2) is again 451 considered. By varying the frequency of the acoustic wave, as measured by 452 the Strouhal number, the drop oscillates at different frequencies. There is a 453 phase shift in the oscillation between r_x and r_y as shown in Figure 14b which 454 results from the combination of different oscillation modes. The maximum 455 and minimum values of the radii are shown in Figure 15 together with the 456 amplitude of the oscillation. The Rayleigh frequency computed from (31) is 457 $\omega_n = 2.1091$ under the current test case condition. In our simulation, the 458 maximum amplitude of oscillation is obtained at $St = 0.16\pi$ corresponding 459 to the acoustic wave frequency $\omega = 1.9825$. The computational result is close 460 to the analytical solution, with a discrepancy of about 6% for the resonance 461 frequency, which once again is attributed to the fact that our system is both 462 damped and the drop oscillations have finite amplitude. 463

464 4. CONCLUSIONS

A discontinuous Galerkin front tracking scheme has been presented. The 465 material interface is tracked explicitly. Although not strictly conservative. 466 the method is found to be accurate and the mass conservation errors are 467 found to be very small. The front propagation speed is determined by solv-468 ing Riemann problems at the element interface. The interface is represented 469 by a collection of edges which are element boundaries and therefore is ap-470 proximated by high order polynomials. To maintain the quality of the grid 471 during the propagation of the interface, the grid is optimized at every time 472 step. 473

To handle interfaces in flows with surface tension, the jump in the solution due to the surface tension is incorporated into the Riemann solver. In order to compute the interface curvature required to evaluate the surface



Figure 13: Example 3.4: Drop deformation and oscillation under acoustic wave. Pressure field at different time steps with Re = 100, k = 10, $St = 0.25\pi$ using cubic interpolations on the grid of 347 elements.



Figure 14: Example 3.4: Drop deformation and oscillation under acoustic wave. Evolution of the drop shape with different Strouhal number, Re = 100, k = 10 and cubic elements



Figure 15: Example 3.4: Drop deformation and oscillation under acoustic wave. Radius and amplitude of the drop at different Strouhal number, Re = 100, k = 10, and cubic elements

tension, a smooth representation of the interface is obtained using B-splines. 477 Results of various compressible Navier-Stokes flows with surface tension have 478 been shown, including the oscillation of a drop with and without the pres-479 ence of an externally imposed acoustic wave. The numerical results show 480 a rather close agreement with the analytical results based on the inviscid 481 linearized theory of Rayleigh. Overall, the proposed discontinuous Galerkin 482 front tracking method is deemed robust and able to deal with material in-483 terfaces involving surface tension and general geometries. 484

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