# The Finite Element Method in Geodynamics

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# 1 Introduction

practical hands-on approach as little as possible jargon no mathematical proof

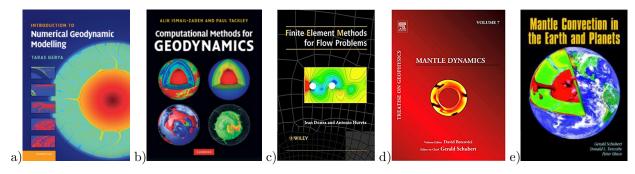
no optimised codes (readability over efficiency). avoiding as much as possible to have to look elsewhere. very sequential, so unavoidable repetitions (jacobian, shape functions)

FE is one of several methods.

## 1.1 Acknowledgments

Jean Braun, Philippe Fullsack, Arie van den Berg. Lukas van de Wiel. Robert Myhill. Menno, Anne Too many BSc and MSc students to name indivisually, although Job Mos did produce the very first version of fieldstone as part of his MSc thesis. The ASPECT team in general and Wolfgang Bangerth in particular.

### 1.2 Essential literature



### 1.3 Installation

python3.6 -m pip install --user numpy scipy matplotlib

#### 2 The physical equations of Fluid Dynamics

[from aspect manual] We focus on the system of equations in a d=2- or d=3-dimensional domain  $\Omega$  that describes the motion of a highly viscous fluid driven by differences in the gravitational force due to a density that depends on the temperature. In the following, we largely follow the exposition of this material in Schubert, Turcotte and Olson

Specifically, we consider the following set of equations for velocity  $\mathbf{u}$ , pressure p and temperature T:

$$-\nabla \cdot \left[ 2\eta \left( \dot{\varepsilon}(\boldsymbol{v}) - \frac{1}{3} (\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{v}) \mathbf{1} \right) \right] + \nabla p = \rho \boldsymbol{g}$$
 in  $\Omega$ , (1)

$$\nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v}) = 0 \qquad \qquad \text{in } \Omega, \tag{2}$$

$$\rho C_p \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \nabla T \right) - \nabla \cdot k \nabla T = \rho H$$

$$+2\eta \left(\dot{\varepsilon}(\boldsymbol{v}) - \frac{1}{3}(\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{v})\mathbf{1}\right) : \left(\dot{\varepsilon}(\boldsymbol{v}) - \frac{1}{3}(\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{v})\mathbf{1}\right)$$

$$+\alpha T \left(\boldsymbol{v} \cdot \nabla p\right)$$

$$+\alpha T \Delta S \left(\frac{\partial X}{\partial x} + \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \nabla X\right)$$
in  $\Omega$ 

$$+ \rho T \Delta S \left( \frac{\partial X}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \nabla X \right)$$
 in  $\Omega$ ,

where  $\dot{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{u}) = \frac{1}{2}(\nabla \mathbf{u} + \nabla \mathbf{u}^T)$  is the symmetric gradient of the velocity (often called the *strain rate*).

In this set of equations, (4) and (5) represent the compressible Stokes equations in which  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}, t)$  is the velocity field and  $p = p(\mathbf{x}, t)$  the pressure field. Both fields depend on space  $\mathbf{x}$  and time t. Fluid flow is driven by the gravity force that acts on the fluid and that is proportional to both the density of the fluid and the strength of the gravitational pull.

Coupled to this Stokes system is equation (6) for the temperature field  $T = T(\mathbf{x}, t)$  that contains heat conduction terms as well as advection with the flow velocity v. The right hand side terms of this equation correspond to

- internal heat production for example due to radioactive decay;
- friction heating;
- adiabatic compression of material;
- phase change.

The last term of the temperature equation corresponds to the latent heat generated or consumed in the process of phase change of material. In what follows we will not assume that no phase change takes place so that we disregard this term altogether.

#### 2.1 the Boussinesq approximation: an Incompressible flow

[from aspect manual] The Boussinesq approximation assumes that the density can be considered constant in all occurrences in the equations with the exception of the buoyancy term on the right hand side of (4). The primary result of this assumption is that the continuity equation (5) will now read

$$\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{v} = 0$$

This implies that the strain rate tensor is deviatoric. Under the Boussinesq approximation, the equations are much simplified:

$$-\nabla \cdot [2\eta \dot{\varepsilon}(\mathbf{v})] + \nabla p = \rho \mathbf{g} \qquad \text{in } \Omega, \tag{4}$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v}) = 0 \qquad \text{in } \Omega, \tag{5}$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v}) = 0 \qquad \text{in } \Omega, \tag{5}$$

$$\rho_0 C_p \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla T \right) - \nabla \cdot k \nabla T = \rho H \qquad \text{in } \Omega \tag{6}$$

Note that all terms on the rhs of the temperature equations have disappeared, with the exception of the source term. These are the equations which are used and implemented in all the codes, unless otherwise indicated.

### 2.1.1 The penalty approach

In order to impose the incompressibility constraint, two widely used procedures are available, namely the Lagrange multiplier method and the penalty method [1, 20]. The latter is implemented in ELEFANT, which allows for the elimination of the pressure variable from the momentum equation (resulting in a reduction of the matrix size).

Mathematical details on the origin and validity of the penalty approach applied to the Stokes problem can for instance be found in [8], [32] or [19].

The penalty formulation of the mass conservation equation is based on a relaxation of the incompressibility constraint and writes

$$\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{v} + \frac{p}{\lambda} = 0 \tag{7}$$

where  $\lambda$  is the penalty parameter, that can be interpreted (and has the same dimension) as a bulk viscosity. It is equivalent to say that the material is weakly compressible. It can be shown that if one chooses  $\lambda$  to be a sufficiently large number, the continuity equation  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$  will be approximately satisfied in the finite element solution. The value of  $\lambda$  is often recommended to be 6 to 7 orders of magnitude larger than the shear viscosity [14, 21].

Equation (7) can be used to eliminate the pressure in Eq. (??) so that the mass and momentum conservation equations fuse to become :

$$\nabla \cdot (2\eta \dot{\varepsilon}(\boldsymbol{v})) + \lambda \nabla (\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{v}) = \rho \boldsymbol{g} = 0 \tag{8}$$

[26] have established the equivalence for incompressible problems between the reduced integration of the penalty term and a mixed Finite Element approach if the pressure nodes coincide with the integration points of the reduced rule

In the end, the elimination of the pressure unknown in the Stokes equations replaces the original saddle-point Stokes problem [2] by an elliptical problem, which leads to a symmetric positive definite (SPD) FEM matrix. This is the major benefit of the penalized approach over the full indefinite solver with the velocity-pressure variables. Indeed, the SPD character of the matrix lends itself to efficient solving stragegies and is less memory-demanding since it is sufficient to store only the upper half of the matrix including the diagonal [18] . ToDo: list codes which use this approach.

# 3 The Finite Element Method

- **3.1** aaa
- 3.2 Solving procedures
- 3.2.1 the whole matrix at once
- 3.2.2 the pressure Schur complement appraoch

# 4 Additional techniques

- 4.1 The method of manufactured solutions
- 4.2 Sparse storage
- 4.3 Mesh generation
- 4.4 The value of the timestep
- 4.5 Tracking materials
- 4.6 Visco-Plasticity
- 4.7 Picard and Newton
- 4.8 The choice of solvers
- 4.9 The SUPG formulation for the energy equation
- 4.10 Tracking materials and/or interfaces
- 4.11 Dealing with a free surface

so much to do  $\dots$ 

write about impose bc on el matrix

Q1Q1-stab

Q2Q1

Q3Q2

full compressible

total energy calculations

constraints

free-slip bc on annulus and sphere . See for example p540 Gresho and Sani book.

non-linear rheologies (punch, two layer brick spmw16, tosn15)

Picard vs Newton

markers

Schur complement approach

periodic boundary conditions

open boundary conditions

export to vtu

free surface

SUPG

produce fastest version possible for convection box

zaleski disk advection

all kinds of interesting benchmarks

Busse convection pb, compare with aspect

cvi!!!

pure elastic

including phase changes (w. R. Myhill)

derivatives on nodes

Nusselt

discontinuous galerkin

formatting of code style

navier-stokes? (LUKAS)

pressure smoothing

compute strainrate in middle of element or at quad point for punch?

GEO1442 code

GEO1442 indenter setup in plane?

in/out flow on sides for lith modelling

Problems to solve:

colorscale

better yet simple matrix storage?

## 5 fieldstone: simple analytical solution

From [12]. In order to illustrate the behavior of selected mixed finite elements in the solution of stationary Stokes flow, we consider a two-dimensional problem in the square domain  $\Omega = [0,1] \times [0,1]$ , which possesses a closed-form analytical solution. The problem consists of determining the velocity field  $\mathbf{v} = (u, v)$  and the pressure p such that

$$-\nu \Delta v + \nabla p = b$$
 in  $\Omega$   
 $\nabla \cdot v = 0$  in  $\Omega$   
 $v = 0$  on  $\Gamma$ 

where the fluid viscosity is taken as  $\nu = 1$ . The components of the body force **b** are prescribed as

$$b_x = (12 - 24y)x^4 + (-24 + 48y)x^3 + (-48y + 72y^2 - 48y^3 + 12)x^2$$

$$+(-2 + 24y - 72y^2 + 48y^3)x + 1 - 4y + 12y^2 - 8y^3$$

$$b_y = (8 - 48y + 48y^2)x^3 + (-12 + 72y - 72y^2)x^2$$

$$+(4 - 24y + 48y^2 - 48y^3 + 24y^4)x - 12y^2 + 24y^3 - 12y^4$$

With this prescribed body force, the exact solution is

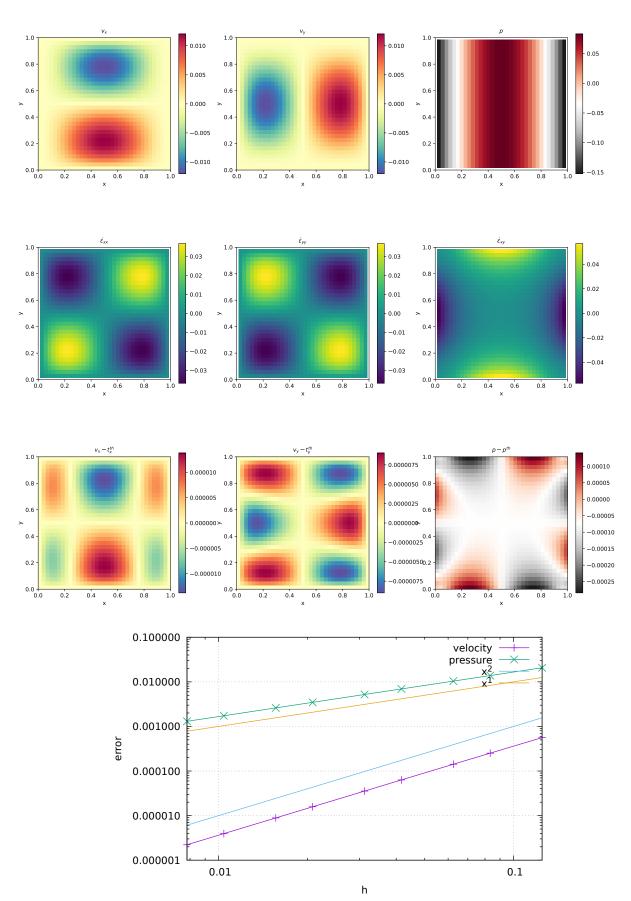
$$u(x,y) = x^{2}(1-x)^{2}(2y-6y^{2}+4y^{3})$$
  

$$v(x,y) = -y^{2}(1-y)^{2}(2x-6x^{2}+4x^{3})$$
  

$$p(x,y) = x(1-x)-1/6$$

Note that the pressure obeys  $\int_{\Omega} p \ d\Omega = 0$ 

- $Q_1 \times P_0$  element
- incompressible flow
- penalty formulation
- Dirichlet boundary conditions (no-slip)
- direct solver
- isothermal
- isoviscous
- analytical solution



Quadratic convergence for velocity error, linear convergence for pressure error, as expected.

ToDo: pressure normalisation? different cmat, a la schmalholz To go further:

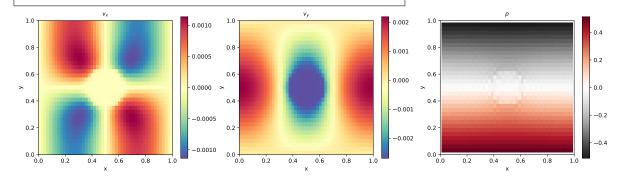
1. make your own analytical solution					

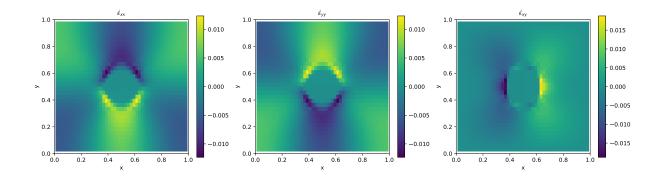
# 6 fieldstone: Stokes sphere

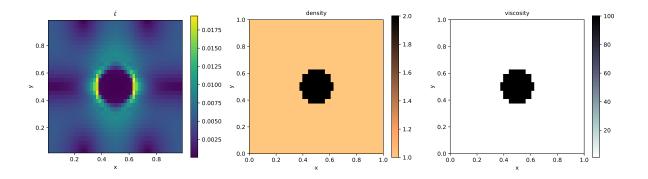
Viscosity and density directly computed at the quadrature points.



- $Q_1 \times P_0$  element
- $\bullet$  incompressible flow
- penalty formulation
- Dirichlet boundary conditions (free-slip)
- direct solver
- $\bullet$  isothermal
- non-isoviscous
- buoyancy-driven flow







## 7 fieldstone: Convection in a 2D box

This benchmark deals with the 2-D thermal convection of a fluid of infinite Prandtl number in a rectangular closed cell. In what follows, I carry out the case 1a, 1b, and 1c experiments as shown in [3]: steady convection with constant viscosity in a square box.

The temperature is fixed to zero on top and to  $\Delta T$  at the bottom, with reflecting symmetry at the sidewalls (i.e.  $\partial_x T = 0$ ) and there are no internal heat sources. Free-slip conditions are implemented on all boundaries.

The Rayleigh number is given by

$$Ra = \frac{\alpha g_y \Delta T h^3}{\kappa \nu} = \frac{\alpha g_y \Delta T h^3 \rho^2 c_p}{k\mu} \tag{9}$$

In what follows, I use the following parameter values:  $L_x = L_y = 1, \rho_0 = c_P = k = \mu = 1, T_0 = 0, \alpha = 10^{-2}, g = 10^2 Ra$  and I run the model with  $Ra = 10^4, 10^5$  and  $10^6$ .

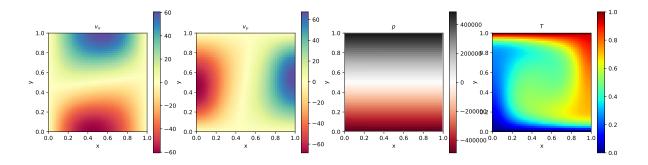
The initial temperature field is given by

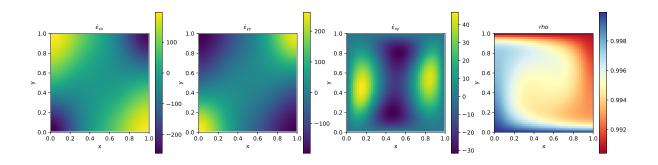
$$T(x,y) = (1-y) - 0.01\cos(\pi x)\sin(\pi z) \tag{10}$$

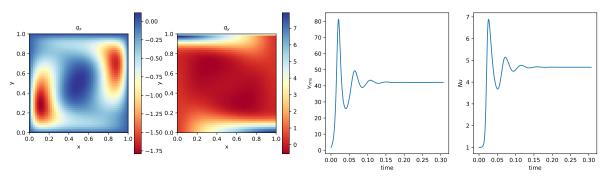
The perturbation in the initial temperature fields leads to a perturbation of the density field and sets the fluid in motion.

Depending on the initial Rayleigh number, the system ultimately reaches a steady state after some time. The steady-state temperature fields of case 1a,b,c are shown hereunder:

- $Q_1 \times P_0$  element
- incompressible flow
- penalty formulation
- Dirichlet boundary conditions (free-slip)
- Boussinesq approximation
- direct solver
- non-isothermal
- buoyancy-driven flow
- isoviscous
- CFL-condition







ToDo: implement steady state criterion reach steady state do Ra=1e4, 1e5, 1e6 plot against blankenbach paper and aspect look at critical Ra number

### 8 fieldstone: solcx benchmark

The SolCx benchmark is intended to test the accuracy of the solution to a problem that has a large jump in the viscosity along a line through the domain. Such situations are common in geophysics: for example, the viscosity in a cold, subducting slab is much larger than in the surrounding, relatively hot mantle material.

The SolCx benchmark computes the Stokes flow field of a fluid driven by spatial density variations, subject to a spatially variable viscosity. Specifically, the domain is  $\Omega = [0, 1]^2$ , gravity is  $\mathbf{g} = (0, -1)^T$  and the density is given by

$$\rho(x,y) = \sin(\pi y)\cos(\pi x) \tag{11}$$

Boundary conditions are free slip on all of the sides of the domain and the temperature plays no role in this benchmark. The viscosity is prescribed as follows:

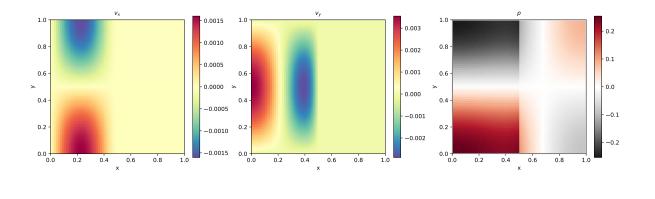
$$\mu(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & for \quad x < 0.5\\ 10^6 & for \quad x > 0.5 \end{cases}$$
 (12)

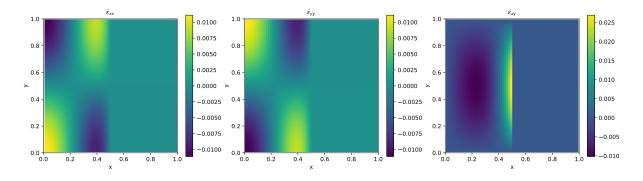
Note the strongly discontinuous viscosity field yields a stagnant flow in the right half of the domain and thereby yields a pressure discontinuity along the interface.

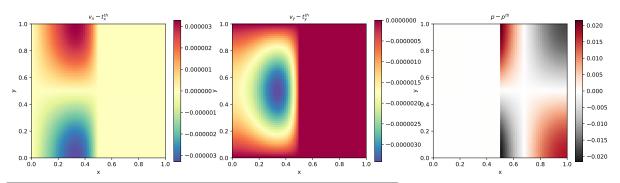
The SolCx benchmark was previously used in [15] (references to earlier uses of the benchmark are available there) and its analytic solution is given in [42]. It has been carried out in [25] and [17]. Note that the source code which evaluates the velocity and pressure fields for both SolCx and SolKz is distributed as part of the open source package Underworld ([28], http://underworldproject.org).

In this particular example, the viscosity is computed analytically at the quadrature points (i.e. tracers are not used to attribute a viscosity to the element). If the number of elements is even in any direction, all elements (and their associated quadrature points) have a constant viscosity (1 or  $10^6$ ). If it is odd, then the elements situated at the viscosity jump have half their integration points with  $\mu = 1$  and half with  $\mu = 10^6$  (which is a pathological case since the used quadrature rule inside elements cannot represent accurately such a jump).

- $Q_1 \times P_0$  element
- incompressible flow
- penalty formulation
- Dirichlet boundary conditions (free-slip)
- direct solver
- isothermal
- non-isoviscous
- analytical solution







What we learn from this

# 9 fieldstone: solkz benchmark

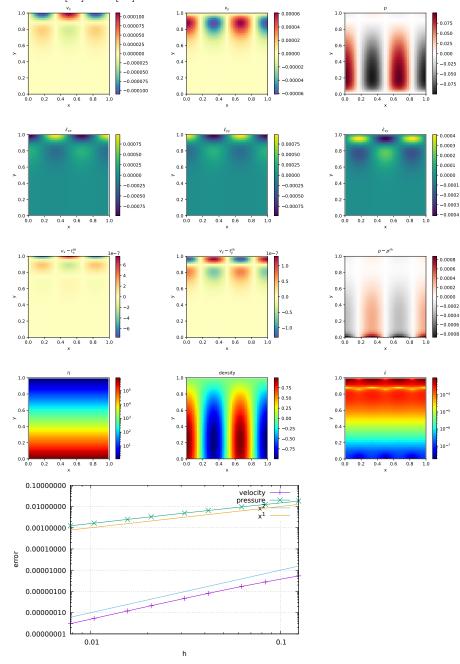
The SolKz benchmark [33] is similar to the SolCx benchmark. but the viscosity is now a function of the space coordinates:

$$\mu(y) = \exp(By)$$
 with  $B = 13.8155$  (13)

It is however not a discontinuous function but grows exponentially with the vertical coordinate so that its overall variation is again  $10^6$ . The forcing is again chosen by imposing a spatially variable density variation as follows:

$$\rho(x,y) = \sin(2y)\cos(3\pi x) \tag{14}$$

Free slip boundary conditions are imposed on all sides of the domain. This benchmark is presented in [42] as well and is studied in [15] and [17].



### 10 fieldstone: solvi benchmark

Following SolCx and SolKz, the SolVi inclusion benchmark solves a problem with a discontinuous viscosity field, but in this case the viscosity field is chosen in such a way that the discontinuity is along a circle. Given the regular nature of the grid used by a majority of codes and the present one, this ensures that the discontinuity in the viscosity never aligns to cell boundaries. This in turns leads to almost discontinuous pressures along the interface which are difficult to represent accurately. [35] derived a simple analytic solution for the pressure and velocity fields for a circular inclusion under simple shear and it was used in [10], [37], [15], [25] and [17].

Because of the symmetry of the problem, we only have to solve over the top right quarter of the domain (see Fig. ??a).

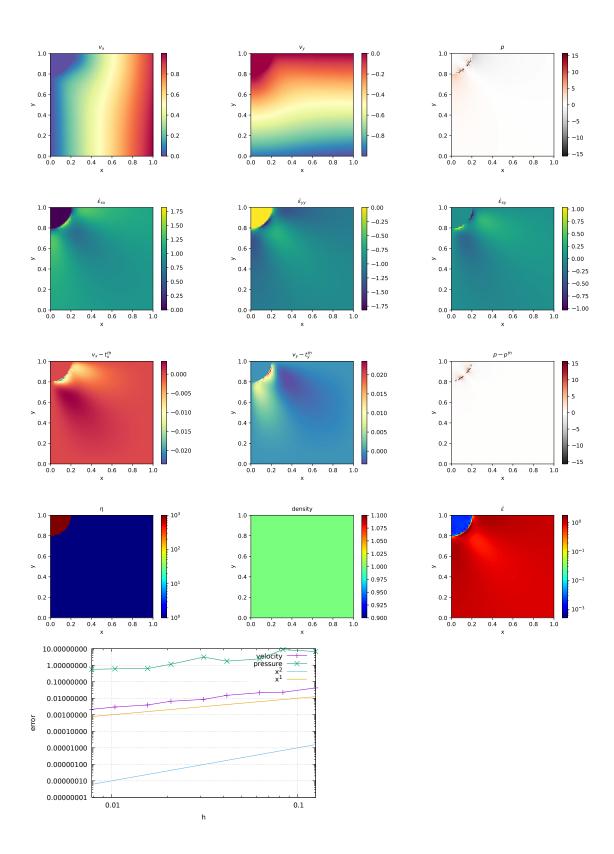
The analytical solution requires a strain rate boundary condition (e.g., pure shear) to be applied far away from the inclusion. In order to avoid using very large domains and/or dealing with this type of boundary condition altogether, the analytical solution is evaluated and imposed on the boundaries of the domain. By doing so, the truncation error introduced while discretizing the strain rate boundary condition is removed.

A characteristic of the analytic solution is that the pressure is zero inside the inclusion, while outside it follows the relation

$$p_m = 4\dot{\epsilon} \frac{\mu_m(\mu_i - \mu_m)}{\mu_i + \mu_m} \frac{r_i^2}{r^2} \cos(2\theta)$$
 (15)

where  $\mu_i = 10^3$  is the viscosity of the inclusion and  $\mu_m = 1$  is the viscosity of the background media,  $\theta = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$ , and  $\dot{\epsilon} = 1$  is the applied strain rate.

[10] thoroughly investigated this problem with various numerical methods (FEM, FDM), with and without tracers, and conclusively showed how various averagings lead to different results. [15] obtained a first order convergence for both pressure and velocity, while [25] and [17] showed that the use of adaptive mesh refinement in respectively the FEM and FDM yields convergence rates which depend on refinement strategies.



## 11 fieldstone: the indentor benchmark

The punch benchmark is one of the few boundary value problems involving plastic solids for which there exists an exact solution. Such solutions are usually either for highly simplified geometries (spherical or axial symmetry, for instance) or simplified material models (such as rigid plastic solids) [24].

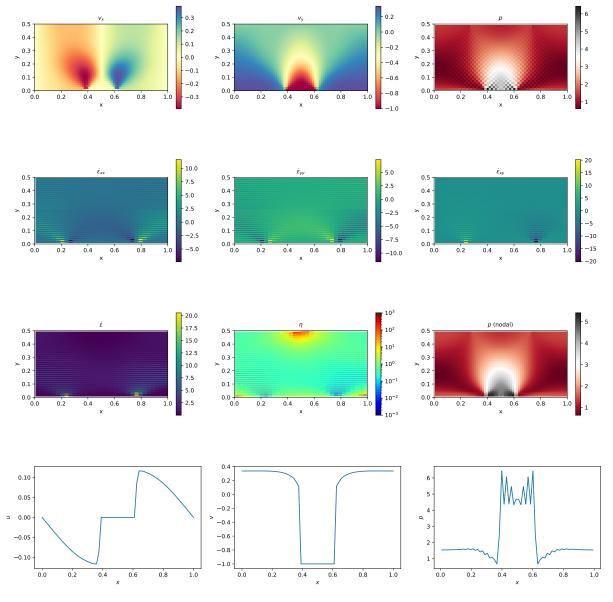
In this experiment, a rigid punch indents a rigid plastic half space; the slip line field theory gives exact solutions as shown in Fig. ??a. The plane strain formulation of the equations and the detailed solution to the problem were derived in the Appendix of [40] and are also presented in [16].

The two dimensional punch problem has been extensively studied numerically for the past 40 years [45, 44, 7, 6, 22, 41, 4, 31] and has been used to draw a parallel with the tectonics of eastern China in the context of the India-Eurasia collision [38, 27]. It is also worth noting that it has been carried out in one form or another in series of analogue modelling articles concerning the same region, with a rigid indenter colliding with a rheologically stratified lithosphere [29, 9, 23].

Numerically, the one-time step punch experiment is performed on a two-dimensional domain of purely plastic von Mises material. Given that the von Mises rheology yield criterion does not depend on pressure, the density of the material and/or the gravity vector is set to zero. Sides are set to free slip boundary conditions, the bottom to no slip, while a vertical velocity  $(0, -v_p)$  is prescribed at the top boundary for nodes whose x coordinate is within  $[L_x/2 - \delta/2, L_x/2 + \delta/2]$ .

The following parameters are used:  $L_x = 1$ ,  $L_y = 0.5$ ,  $\mu_{min} = 10^{-3}$ ,  $\mu_{max} = 10^3$ ,  $\nu_p = 1$ ,  $\delta = 0.123456789$  and the yield value of the material is set to k = 1.

The analytical solution predicts that the angle of the shear bands stemming from the sides of the punch is  $\pi/4$ , that the pressure right under the punch is  $1+\pi$ , and that the velocity of the rigid blocks on each side of the punch is  $v_p/\sqrt{2}$  (this is simply explained by invoking conservation of mass).



### ToDo: smooth punch

- $Q_1 \times P_0$  element
- $\bullet\,$  incompressible flow
- $\bullet$  penalty formulation
- Dirichlet boundary conditions (no-slip)
- $\bullet$  isothermal
- non-isoviscous
- $\bullet\,$  nonlinear rheology

#### 12 fieldstone: the annulus benchmark

This benchmark is based on Thieulot & Puckett [Subm.] in which an analytical solution to the isoviscous incompressible Stokes equations is derived in an annulus geometry. The velocity and pressure fields are as follows:

$$v_r(r,\theta) = g(r)k\sin(k\theta), \tag{16}$$

$$v_{\theta}(r,\theta) = f(r)\cos(k\theta), \tag{17}$$

$$p(r,\theta) = kh(r)\sin(k\theta), \tag{18}$$

$$\rho(r,\theta) = \aleph(r)k\sin(k\theta), \tag{19}$$

with

$$f(r) = Ar + B/r, (20)$$

$$g(r) = \frac{A}{2}r + \frac{B}{r}\ln r + \frac{C}{r},\tag{21}$$

$$g(r) = \frac{A}{2}r + \frac{B}{r}\ln r + \frac{C}{r},$$

$$h(r) = \frac{2g(r) - f(r)}{r},$$
(21)

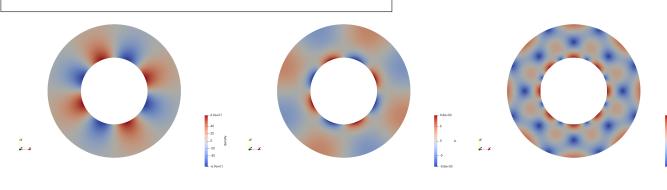
$$\aleph(r) = g'' - \frac{g'}{r} - \frac{g}{r^2}(k^2 - 1) + \frac{f}{r^2} + \frac{f'}{r}, \tag{23}$$

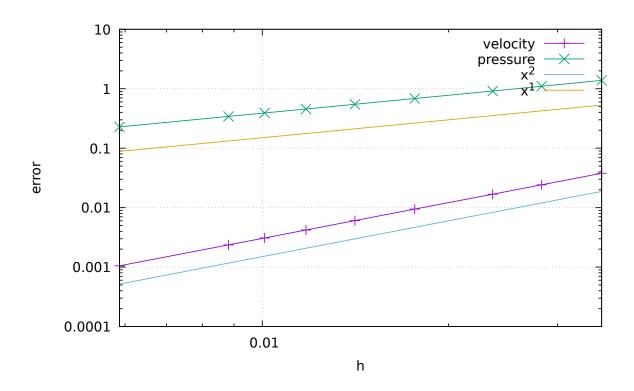
$$A = -C \frac{2(\ln R_1 - \ln R_2)}{R_2^2 \ln R_1 - R_1^2 \ln R_2}, \tag{24}$$

$$B = -C \frac{R_2^2 - R_1^2}{R_2^2 \ln R_1 - R_1^2 \ln R_2}. (25)$$

The parameters A and B are chosen so that  $v_r(R_1) = v_r(R_2) = 0$ , i.e. the velocity is tangential to both inner and outer surfaces. The gravity vector is radial and of unit length. In the present case, we set  $R_1 = 1$ ,  $R_2 = 2$  and C = -1.

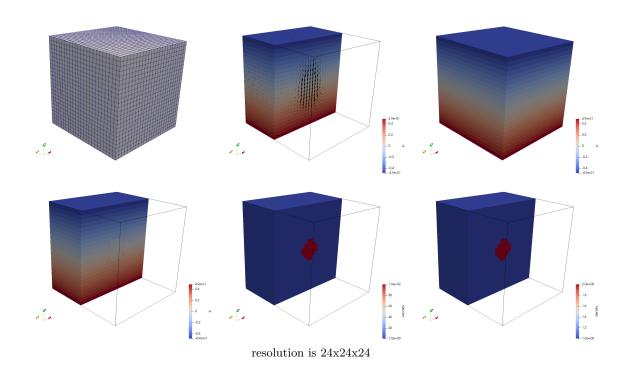
- $Q_1 \times P_0$  element
- incompressible flow
- penalty formulation
- Dirichlet boundary conditions
- direct solver
- isothermal
- isoviscous
- analytical solution
- annulus geometry
- elemental boundary conditions





# 13 fieldstone: stokes sphere (3D) - penalty

- $Q_1 \times P_0$  element
- $\bullet\,$  incompressible flow
- penalty formulation
- Dirichlet boundary conditions (free-slip)
- ullet direct solver
- $\bullet$  isothermal
- non-isoviscous
- 3D
- $\bullet$  elemental b.c.
- buoyancy driven



# 14 fieldstone: stokes sphere (3D) - mixed formulation

This is the same setup as Section 14.

- $Q_1 \times P_0$  element
- $\bullet\,$  incompressible flow
- $\bullet$  mixed formulation
- Dirichlet boundary conditions (free-slip)
- direct solver
- $\bullet$  isothermal
- non-isoviscous
- 3D
- $\bullet\,$  elemental b.c.
- buoyancy driven

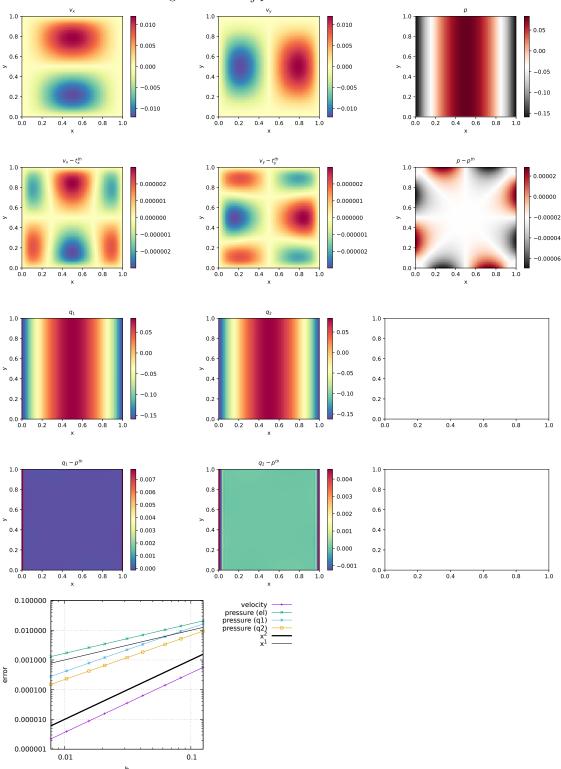
## 15 fieldstone: consistent pressure recovery

$$p = -\lambda \boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \boldsymbol{v}$$

 $q_1$  is smoothed pressure obtained with the center-to-node approach.

 $q_2$  is recovered pressure obtained with [43].

All three fulfill the zero average condition:  $\int pd\Omega = 0$ .



In terms of pressure error,  $q_2$  is better than  $q_1$  which is better than elemental. QUESTION: why are the averages exactly zero ?! TODO:

- add randomness to internal node positions.
- look at elefant algorithms

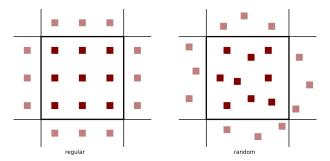
## 16 fieldstone: the Particle in Cell technique (1) - the effect of averaging

### features

- $Q_1 \times P_0$  element
- incompressible flow
- penalty formulation
- Dirichlet boundary conditions (no-slip)
- isothermal
- non-isoviscous
- particle-in-cell

After the initial setup of the grid, markers can then be generated and placed in the domain. One could simply randomly generate the marker positions in the whole domain but unless a *very* large number of markers is used, the chance that an element does not contain any marker exists and this will prove problematic. In order to get a better control over the markers spatial distribution, one usually generates the marker per element, so that the total number of markers in the domain is the product of the number of elements times the user-chosen initial number of markers per element.

Our next concern is how to actually place the markers inside an element. Two methods come to mind: on a regular grid, or in a random manner, as shown on the following figure:



In both cases we make use of the basis shape functions: we generate the positions of the markers (random or regular) in the reference element first  $(r_{im}, s_{im})$ , and then map those out to the real element as follows:

$$x_{im} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} N_i(r_{im}, s_{im}) x_i$$
  $y_{im} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} N_i(r_{im}, s_{im}) y_i$ 

where  $x_i, y_i$  are the coordinates of the vertices of the element.

When using *active* markers, one is faced with the problem of transferring the properties they carry to the mesh on which the PDEs are to be solved. As we have seen, building the FE matrix involves a loop over all elements, so one simple approach consists of assigning each element a single property computed as the average of the values carried by the markers in that element. Often in colloquial language "average" refers to the arithmetic mean:

$$\langle \phi \rangle_{am} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k}^{n} \phi_i$$

where  $\langle \phi \rangle_{am}$  is the arithmetic average of the *n* numbers  $\phi_i$ . However, in mathematics other means are commonly used, such as the geometric mean:

$$\langle \phi \rangle_{gm} = \left( \prod_{i=1}^{n} \phi_i \right)$$

and the harmonic mean:

$$\langle \phi \rangle_{hm} = \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i}^{n} \frac{1}{\phi_i}\right)^{-1}$$

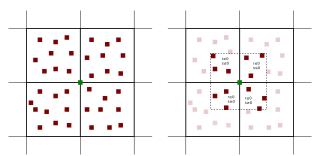
Furthermore, there is a well known inequality for any set of positive numbers,

$$\langle \phi \rangle_{am} \geq \langle \phi \rangle_{qm} \geq \langle \phi \rangle_{hm}$$

which will prove to be important later on.

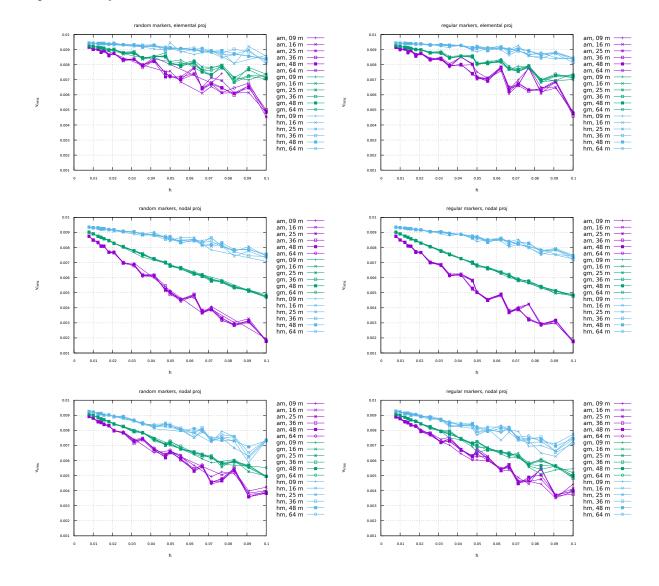
Let us now turn to a simple concrete example: the 2D Stokes sphere. There are two materials in the domain, so that markers carry the label "mat=1" or "mat=2". For each element an average density and viscosity need to be computed. The majority of elements contains markers with a single material label so that the choice of averaging does not matter (it is trivial to verify that if  $\phi_i = \phi_0$  then  $\langle \phi \rangle_{am} = \langle \phi \rangle_{bm} = \phi_0$ . Remain the elements crossed by the interface between the two materials: they contain markers of both materials and the average density and viscosity inside those depends on 1) the total number of markers inside the element, 2) the ratio of markers 1 to markers 2, 3) the type of averaging.

This averaging problem has been studied and documented in the literature [34, 10, 39, 30]



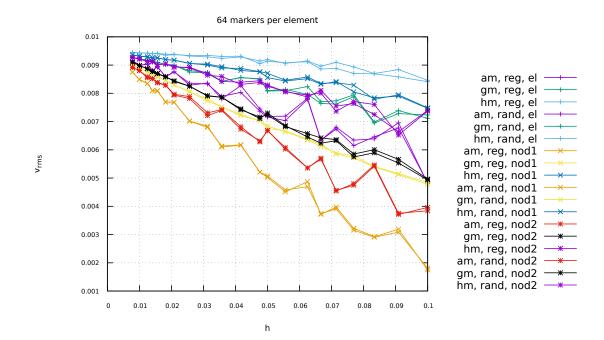
Nodal projection. Left: all markers inside elements to which the green node belongs to are taken into account. Right: only the markers closest to the green node count.

The setup is identical as the Stokes sphere experiment. The bash script runall runs the code for many resolutions, both initial marker distribution and all three averaging types. The viscosity of the sphere has been set to  $10^3$  while the viscosity of the surrounding fluid is 1. The average density is always computed with an arithmetic mean. Root mean square velocity results are shown hereunder:



### Conclusions:

- With increasing resolution  $(h \to 0)$  vrms values seem to converge towards a single value, irrespective of the number of markers.
- At low resolution, say 32x32 (i.e. h=0.03125), vrms values for the three averagings differ by about 10%. At higher resolution, say 128x128, vrms values are still not converged.
- The number of markers per element plays a role at low resolution, but less and less with increasing resolution.
- Results for random and regular marker distributions are not identical but follow a similar trend and seem to converge to the same value.
- At low resolutions, elemental values yield better results.
- harmonic mean yields overal the best results



## 17 fieldstone: solving the full saddle point problem

The details of the numerical setup are presented in Section 5.

The main difference is that we no longer use the penalty formulation and therefore keep both velocity and pressure as unknowns. Therefore we end up having to solve the following system:

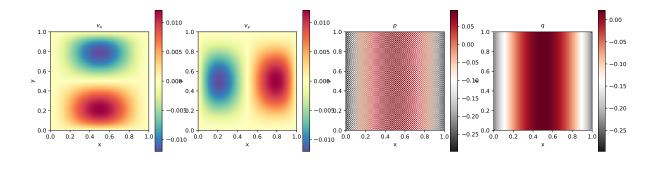
$$\left(\begin{array}{cc} \mathbb{K} & \mathbb{G} \\ \mathbb{G}^T & 0 \end{array}\right) \cdot \left(\begin{array}{c} V \\ P \end{array}\right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} f \\ h \end{array}\right) \qquad \text{or,} \qquad \mathbb{A} \cdot X = rhs$$

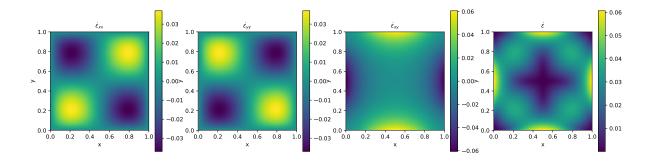
Each block  $\mathbb{K}$ ,  $\mathbb{G}$  and vector f, h are built separately in the code and assembled into the matrix  $\mathbb{A}$  and vector rhs afterwards.  $\mathbb{A}$  and rhs are then passed to the solver. We will see later that there are alternatives to solve this approach which do not require to build the full Stokes matrix  $\mathbb{A}$ .

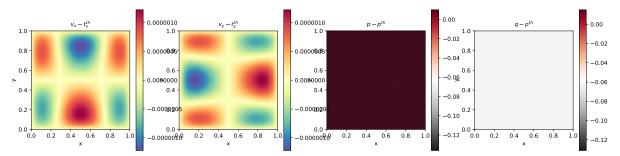
Each element has m=4 vertices so in total  $ndofV \times m=8$  velocity dofs and a single pressure dof, commonly situated in the center of the element. The total number of velocity dofs is therefore  $NfemV=nnp \times ndofV$  while the total number of pressure dofs is NfemP=nel. The total number of dofs is then Nfem=NfemV+NfemP.

As a consequence, matrix  $\mathbb{K}$  has size NfemV, NfemV and matrix  $\mathbb{G}$  has size NfemV, NfemP. Vector f is of size NfemV and vector h is of size NfemP.

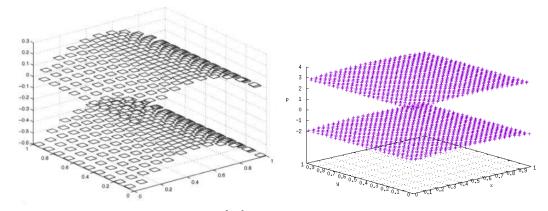
- $Q_1 \times P_0$  element
- incompressible flow
- mixed formulation
- Dirichlet boundary conditions (no-slip)
- direct solver (?)
- $\bullet$  isothermal
- isoviscous
- analytical solution
- pressure smoothing







Unlike the results obtained with the penalty formulation (see Section 5), the pressure showcases a very strong checkerboard pattern, similar to the one in [13].



Left: pressure solution as shown in [13]; Right: pressure solution obtained with fieldstone.

Rather interestingly, the nodal pressure (obtained with a simple center-to-node algorithm) fails to recover a correct pressure at the four corners.

## 18 fieldstone: solving the full saddle point problem in 3D

this does not work because of the Dirichlet b.c. on all 6 sides and all three components

This benchmark begins by postulating a polynomial solution to the 3D Stokes equation [11]:

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x + x^2 + xy + x^3y \\ y + xy + y^2 + x^2y^2 \\ -2z - 3xz - 3yz - 5x^2yz \end{pmatrix}$$
(26)

and

$$p = xyz + x^3y^3z - 5/32 (27)$$

While it is then trivial to verify that this velocity field is divergence-free, the corresponding body force of the Stokes equation can be computed by inserting this solution into the momentum equation with a given viscosity  $\mu$  (constant or position/velocity/strain rate dependent). The domain is a unit cube and velocity boundary conditions simply use Eq. (26). Following [5], the viscosity is given by the smoothly varying function

$$\mu = \exp(1 - \beta(x(1-x) + y(1-y) + z(1-z))) \tag{28}$$

Choosing  $\beta = 0$  yields a constant velocity  $\mu = e^1$  (and greatly simplifies the right-hand side). One can easily show that the ratio of viscosities  $\mu^*$  in the system follows  $\mu^* = \exp(-3\beta/4)$  so that choosing  $\beta = 10$  yields  $\mu^* \simeq 1808$  and  $\beta = 20$  yields  $\mu^* \simeq 3.269 \times 10^6$ .

We start from the momentum conservation equation:

$$-\nabla p + \nabla \cdot (2\mu \dot{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}) = \boldsymbol{f}$$

The x-component of this equation writes

$$f_x = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(2\mu\dot{\epsilon}_{xx}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(2\mu\dot{\epsilon}_{xy}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(2\mu\dot{\epsilon}_{xz})$$

$$(29)$$

$$= -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \dot{\epsilon}_{xx} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \dot{\epsilon}_{xy} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \dot{\epsilon}_{xz} + 2\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial x} \dot{\epsilon}_{xx} + 2\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial y} \dot{\epsilon}_{xy} + 2\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial z} \dot{\epsilon}_{xz}$$
(30)

Let us compute all the block separately:

$$\dot{\epsilon}_{xx} = 1 + 2x + y + 3x^{2}y 
\dot{\epsilon}_{yy} = 1 + x + 2y + 2x^{2}y 
\dot{\epsilon}_{zz} = -2 - 3x - 3y - 5x^{2}y 
2\dot{\epsilon}_{xy} = (x + x^{3}) + (y + 2xy^{2}) = x + y + 2xy^{2} + x^{3} 
2\dot{\epsilon}_{xz} = (0) + (-3z - 10xyz) = -3z - 10xyz 
2\dot{\epsilon}_{yz} = (0) + (-3z - 5x^{2}z) = -3z - 5x^{2}z$$

In passing, one can verify that  $\dot{\epsilon}_{xx} + \dot{\epsilon}_{yy} + \dot{\epsilon}_{zz} = 0$ . We further have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} 2\dot{\epsilon}_{xx} = 2(2+6xy)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} 2\dot{\epsilon}_{xy} = 1+4xy$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} 2\dot{\epsilon}_{xz} = -3-10xy$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} 2\dot{\epsilon}_{xy} = 1+2y^2+3x^2$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} 2\dot{\epsilon}_{yy} = 2(2+2x^2)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} 2\dot{\epsilon}_{yz} = -3-5x^2$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} 2\dot{\epsilon}_{xz} = -10yz$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} 2\dot{\epsilon}_{yz} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} 2\dot{\epsilon}_{zz} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = yz + 3x^2y^3z \tag{31}$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = yz + 3x^2y^3z \tag{31}$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial y} = xz + 3x^3y^2z \tag{32}$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = xy + x^3y^3 \tag{33}$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = xy + x^3 y^3 \tag{33}$$

The viscosity is chosen to be

$$\mu(x, y, z) = \exp\left[1 - \beta(x(1-x) + y(1-y) + z(1-z))\right]$$

### Constant viscosity Setting $\beta = 0$ yields

$$\mu(x, y, z) = e \simeq 2.718$$

so that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\mu(x,y,z) = 0 \tag{34}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\mu(x,y,z) = 0 \tag{35}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\mu(x,y,z) = 0 (36)$$

(39)

and

$$f_x = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \dot{\epsilon}_{xx} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \dot{\epsilon}_{xy} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \dot{\epsilon}_{xz}$$

$$= -(yz + 3x^2y^3z) + 2(2 + 6xy) + (1 + 4xy) + (-3 - 10xy)$$
(37)

$$= -(yz + 3x^2y^3z) + \mu(2 + 6xy) \tag{38}$$

$$f_y = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \dot{\epsilon}_{xy} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \dot{\epsilon}_{yy} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \dot{\epsilon}_{yz}$$
$$= -(xz + 3x^3y^2z) + \mu(1 + 2y^2 + 3x^2) + \mu2(2 + 2x^2) + \mu(-3 - 5x^2)$$

$$= -(xz + 3x^3y^2z) + \mu(2 + 2x^2 + 2y^2) \tag{40}$$

$$f_z = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \dot{\epsilon}_{xz} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \dot{\epsilon}_{yz} + 2\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \dot{\epsilon}_{zz}$$

$$= -(xy + x^3 y^3) + \mu(-10yz) + 0 + 0$$
(41)

$$= -(xy + x^3y^3) + \mu(-10yz) \tag{42}$$

finally

$$\mathbf{f} = -\begin{pmatrix} yz + 3x^2y^3z \\ xz + 3x^3y^2z \\ xy + x^3y^3 \end{pmatrix} + \mu \begin{pmatrix} 2 + 6xy \\ 2 + 2x^2 + 2y^2 \\ -10yz \end{pmatrix}$$

⇒ sign problem with Burstedde et al Eq 26!!

### Variable viscosity

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\mu(x,y,z) & = & -(1-2x)\beta\mu(x,y,z) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\mu(x,y,z) & = & -(1-2y)\beta\mu(x,y,z) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\mu(x,y,z) & = & -(1-2z)\beta\mu(x,y,z) \end{array}$$

$$f = -\begin{pmatrix} yz + 3x^{2}y^{3}z \\ xz + 3x^{3}y^{2}z \\ xy + x^{3}y^{3} \end{pmatrix} + \mu \begin{pmatrix} 2 + 6xy \\ 2 + 2x^{2} + 2y^{2} \\ -10yz \end{pmatrix}$$

$$-(1 - 2x)\beta\mu(x, y, z) \begin{pmatrix} 2\dot{\epsilon}_{xx} \\ 2\dot{\epsilon}_{xy} \\ 2\dot{\epsilon}_{xz} \end{pmatrix} - (1 - 2y)\beta\mu(x, y, z) \begin{pmatrix} 2\dot{\epsilon}_{xy} \\ 2\dot{\epsilon}_{yy} \\ 2\dot{\epsilon}_{yz} \end{pmatrix} - (1 - 2z)\beta\mu(x, y, z) \begin{pmatrix} 2\dot{\epsilon}_{xz} \\ 2\dot{\epsilon}_{yz} \\ 2\dot{\epsilon}_{zz} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= -\begin{pmatrix} yz + 3x^{2}y^{3}z \\ xz + 3x^{3}y^{2}z \\ xy + x^{3}y^{3} \end{pmatrix} + \mu \begin{pmatrix} 2 + 6xy \\ 2 + 2x^{2} + 2y^{2} \\ -10yz \end{pmatrix}$$

$$- (1 - 2x)\beta\mu \begin{pmatrix} 2 + 4x + 2y + 6x^{2}y \\ x + y + 2xy^{2} + x^{3} \\ -3z - 10xyz \end{pmatrix} - (1 - 2y)\beta\mu \begin{pmatrix} x + y + 2xy^{2} + x^{3} \\ 2 + 2x + 4y + 4x^{2}y \\ -3z - 5x^{2}z \\ -4 - 6x - 6y - 10x^{2}y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(43)$$

at 
$$(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0), \ \mu = \exp(1),$$
  
at  $(x, y, z) = (0.5, 0.5, 0.5), \ \mu = \exp(1 - 3\beta/4)$ 

Viscosity ratio is given by

$$\mu^{\star} = \frac{\exp(1 - 3\beta/4)}{\exp(1)} = \exp(-3\beta/4)$$

By varying  $\beta$  between 1 and 22 we can get up to 7 orders of magnitude viscosity difference!

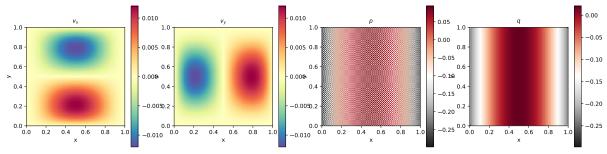
- $Q_1 \times P_0$  element
- incompressible flow
- saddle point system
- Dirichlet boundary conditions (free-slip)
- direct solver
- isothermal
- non-isoviscous
- 3D
- elemental b.c.
- analytical solution

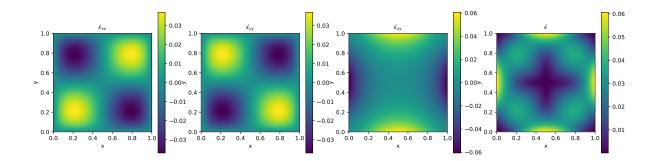
# 19 fieldstone: The non-conforming $Q_1 \times P_0$ element

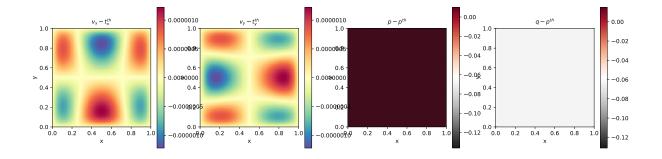
### features

- Non-conforming  $Q_1 \times P_0$  element
- ullet incompressible flow
- $\bullet$  mixed formulation
- $\bullet$  isothermal
- non-isoviscous
- analytical solution
- pressure smoothing

try Q1 mapping instead of isoparametric.







# 20 fieldstone: The stabilised $Q_1 \times Q_1$ element

The details of the numerical setup are presented in Section 5.

# A The main codes in computational geodynamics

In what follows I make a quick inventory of the main codes of computational geodynamics, for crust, lithosphere and/or mantle modelling.

- A.1 ADELI
- A.2 ASPECT
- A.3 CITCOMS and CITCOMCU
- A.4 DOUAR
- A.5 GAIA
- A.6 GALE
- A.7 GTECTON
- A.8 ELVIS
- A.9 ELEFANT
- A.10 ELLIPSIS
- A.11 FANTOM
- A.12 FLUIDITY
- A.13 LAMEM
- A.14 MILAMIN
- A.15 PARAVOZ/FLAMAR
- A.16 PTATIN
- A.17 RHEA
- A.18 SEPRAN
- A.19 SOPALE
- A.20 STAGYY
- A.21 SULEC

SULEC is a finite element code that solves the incompressible Navier-Stokes equations for slow creeping flows. The code is developed by Susan Ellis (GNS Sciences, NZ) and Susanne Buiter (NGU).

- A.22 TERRA
- A.23 UNDERWORLD 1&2

B fieldstone.py

- ${\bf C}$  fieldstone\_stokes\_sphere.py
- ${\bf D} \quad {\bf fields tone\_convection\_box.py}$

E fieldstone\_solcx.py

 ${\bf F} \quad {\bf field stone\_indentor.py}$ 

 ${\bf G}$  fieldstone\_saddlepoint.py

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