

# Toward Verification of Unstructured-Grid Solvers

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**New methodology for verification of finite volume computational methods using unstructured grids is presented. The discretization-order properties are studied in computational windows, easily constructed within a collection of grids or a single grid. Tests are performed within each window and address a combination of problem-, solution-, and discretization/grid-related features affecting discretization-error convergence. The windows can be adjusted to isolate particular elements of the computational scheme, such as the interior discretization, the boundary discretization, or singularities. Studies can use traditional grid-refinement computations within a fixed window or downscaling, a recently introduced technique in which computations are made within windows contracting toward a focal point of interest. Grids within the windows are constrained to be consistently refined, allowing a meaningful assessment of asymptotic error convergence on unstructured grids. Demonstrations of the method are shown, including a comparative accuracy assessment of commonly used schemes on general mixed grids and the identification of local accuracy deterioration at boundary intersections. Recommendations to enable attainment of design-order discretization errors for large-scale computational simulations are given.**

## Introduction

THERE is an increasing reliance on computational simulations in aircraft design practices, supplementing traditional analytic and experimental approaches. Verification and validation methodologies [1] are being developed to ensure the correct application of these simulations. Verification methodologies for structured grids are relatively well-developed in comparison with unstructured grids, especially grids containing mixed elements or grids derived through agglomeration techniques. The summary of the latest of three drag prediction workshops [2] illustrates the problems associated with assessing errors in practical complex-geometry/complex-physics applications. Current practices tend to compare relative errors between methods and experimental results, rather than absolute errors. The motivation for this paper was to advance verification methodologies to predict the code performance in such large-scale computational endeavors.

The verification methodologies proposed here stem from a novel *computational* tool, a *downscaling* (DS) test, for evaluating the accuracy of finite volume discretization (FVD) schemes defined on general unstructured meshes [3]. Performed for a known exact or manufactured solution, the test consists of a series of inexpensive computational experiments that provide local estimates for the convergence orders of the discrete solution (discretization) errors by comparing errors obtained on different scales. The test does not

impose any restriction on the grid structure. Analysis methods predicting the performance of DS tests were also developed. The downscaling technique is similar in motivation to the shrinking-grid method of Herbert and Luke [4], but is quite different near the boundaries and does not invoke statistically sampled results.

Traditionally, the discretization accuracy of FVD schemes has been verified by convergence of truncation errors (residuals evaluated with the exact solution). On irregular (unstructured) grids, the DS tests demonstrated, and global grid-refinement computations confirmed, that the discretization accuracy is not directly linked to convergence of truncation errors. In fact, many researchers have observed that convergence of truncation errors is a sufficient, but not a necessary, condition [5–8]. As such, from the standpoint of verification, truncation-error convergence provides a conservative estimate of discretization-error convergence.

The main contribution of the current paper is the use of computational windows to improve verification of unstructured-grid computational methods intended for large-scale applications. In large-scale grid-refinement studies, extensive amounts of data are involved and integral norms often do not provide sufficient information to isolate the source of errors. As an alternative, convergence of discretization errors is studied within computational windows, constructed within a collection of grids or a single grid. The concept of consistent refinement is introduced to allow a meaningful assessment of asymptotic error convergence on unstructured grids. A test performed in each window addresses a combination of problem-, solution-, and discretization/grid-related features affecting discretization-error convergence. The windows can be adjusted to isolate particular elements of the computational scheme (such as the interior discretization, the boundary discretization, or singularities) or tailored to pinpoint regions of interest. Testing can use traditional grid-refinement computations within a fixed window or downscaling, using computations within windows contracting toward a focal point of interest. Also, in DS testing, very small mesh sizes can be used to ensure that testing is within the asymptotic convergence range (where the leading-order terms dominate).

The possible methodologies for verifying convergence of discretization errors on unstructured grids are listed in Table 1. The entries in the table are arranged from highest to lowest computational

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**Table 1** Verification methodologies

Verification method	Complexity	Interpretation
Grid-refinement computations of discretization errors	Expensive	Precise estimate
DS computations of discretization errors	Fixed cost	Optimistic estimate
Truncation errors via grid-refinement or DS computations	Low	Conservative estimate

cost. Unfortunately, the less expensive estimates are more difficult to interpret correctly. For example, large-scale 3-D grid-refinement computations are quite expensive, but it is quite simple to ascertain attainment of design order in grid refinement if an exact solution is available. DS computations keep the computational costs tractable by reducing the physical size of the domain with succeeding computations, but the DS tests can be overly optimistic in predicting global discretization-error convergence because they do not account for possible error accumulation. For unstructured grids, our experience has been that DS-test predictions of discretization accuracy have been the same as grid-refinement predictions. In any case, because DS tests are always optimistic predictors of discretization-error convergence, if a DS test fails to demonstrate the design performance, there is certainly a deficiency in either the formulation or the implementation. When monitoring truncation errors, the solutions need not be determined, because only residuals need to be evaluated with the manufactured solution. Because this is a local evaluation, there is little difference in convergence orders of truncation errors between grid-refinement and DS tests. Truncation-error assessment is thus inexpensive, but it can serve only as an upper bound, often overly conservative, on discretization-error convergence. This hierarchy of verification tools can be used to complement current practices in large-scale simulations.

The paper is organized as follows. Relations between truncation and discretization errors are discussed first, followed by the definition of consistent refinement with an example. Windowing and downscaling are discussed in the next two sections. Examples are shown for elliptic and inviscid equations, including a comparative accuracy assessment of commonly used FVD schemes on general unstructured grids of mixed type and local accuracy deterioration at boundary intersections using tailored DS tests. Recommendations on verification procedures intended for use within large-scale computational applications are given. The final section contains conclusions.

### Discretization and Truncation Errors

The FVD schemes are derived from the integral form of a conservation law:

$$\oint_{\Gamma} (\mathbf{F} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}) d\Gamma = \iint_V (f - S) dV \quad (1)$$

where  $f$  is a forcing function independent of the solution,  $S$  is a solution-dependent source function,  $V$  is a control volume with boundary  $\Gamma$ ,  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$  is the outward unit normal vector, and  $\mathbf{F}$  is the flux vector. The main accuracy measure of any FVD scheme is the *discretization error*  $E_d$ , defined as the difference between the exact continuous solution  $Q$  to the differential conservation law

$$\nabla \mathbf{F} = f - S \quad (2)$$

and the exact discrete solution  $Q^h$  of the discretized Eq. (1):

$$E_d = Q - Q^h \quad (3)$$

A scheme is considered as design-order-accurate if its discretization errors converge with the design order in the norm of interest.

A common approach to evaluate the accuracy of discrete schemes is to monitor the convergence of *truncation errors*. Traditionally, truncation error  $E_t$  measures the accuracy of the discrete approximation to the differential Eq. (2) [9,10]. For finite differences, it is found by computing the discrete residuals after substituting the exact solution for the discrete solution. For FVD

schemes, the traditional truncation error is usually defined from a time-dependent standpoint [11,12]. In the steady-state limit, after substituting the exact solution  $Q$  into the normalized discrete Eq. (1), the truncation error is defined as

$$E_t = \frac{1}{|V|} \left[ \iint_V (f^h - S^h(Q)) dV - \oint_{\Gamma} (\mathbf{F}^h(Q) \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}}) d\Gamma \right] \quad (4)$$

where  $\mathbf{F}^h$  is a reconstruction of the flux  $\mathbf{F}$  at the boundary  $\Gamma$ ;  $|V|$  is the measure of the control volume,

$$|V| = \iint_V dV \quad (5)$$

$f^h$  and  $S^h$  are, respectively, approximations of the forcing function  $f$  and the source function  $S$  on  $V$ ; and the integrals are computed according to some quadrature formulas.

Assuming that the discretization error is small compared with the exact solution  $Q$  ( $|E_d| \ll |Q|$ ), the discretization error can be evaluated as

$$E_d \approx J^{-1}(Q) E_t(Q) \quad (6)$$

where

$$J(Q) = \frac{\partial}{\partial Q} E_t(Q) \quad (7)$$

is the Jacobian of the truncation-error expression (4).

The traditional definition of truncation error is very useful for structured (regular) grids because the truncation errors converge as  $\mathcal{O}(h^p)$  on sequences of refined meshes, where  $h$  is a characteristic mesh size and  $p$  is the design discretization-accuracy order of the method. For unstructured-grid computations, the convergence of traditional truncation errors is often misleading. Previous studies [6,13–15] noted that second-order convergence of truncation errors for some commonly used FVD schemes can be achieved only on grids with a certain degree of geometric regularity. Examples published elsewhere [3,5–8] and in this paper show that the truncation errors of a design-order scheme can exhibit a lower order of convergence or, in some cases, not converge at all. For some formally inconsistent FVD schemes (traditional truncation errors do not converge), it has been rigorously proven that the discretization errors, in fact, converge [8].

Relation (6) provides the correct order of discretization-error convergence given the truncation-error convergence order. The complexity of evaluation of the discretization-accuracy order rests with evaluation of the inverse Jacobian; as mentioned, truncation errors are easy to compute for a representative manufactured solution. The inverse Jacobian accounts for both interior and boundary discretizations. An example of evaluations of the inverse Jacobian for a formulation focusing on the discrete boundary conditions is given elsewhere [16]. An approximate solution of Eq. (6) using an equivalent linear operator approach has been used to improve the understanding of relations between truncation and discretization errors [3]. Although the approach neglects error-accumulation mechanisms, it can distinguish clearly between inviscid and viscous equations and even between different equations/solution components within a given system.

In this paper, tests are performed for representative manufactured solutions. The manufactured solutions used herein are of two types: either simple analytic functions (collections of polynomials or sines) or exact solutions. The corresponding forcing functions are found by substituting these solutions into the continuous governing equations and boundary conditions. The intent of the approach is to facilitate

testing of discretizations and boundary conditions in situ for large-scale computations; this is possible with slight modifications of most boundary conditions (e.g., evaluating no-slip conditions with a specified wall velocity instead of the typical zero velocity condition). Likewise, in the far field, the exterior conditions are taken from the exact solution rather than from the typical assumption of constant exterior conditions. Not all boundary conditions are amenable to such modifications (e.g., inviscid tangency), and for these we use exact (or manufactured) solutions associated with a particular geometry. An alternative is the mapping construction used by Bond et al. [17].

### Consistent Refinement

The general FVD approach requires partitioning the domain into a set of nonoverlapping control volumes and numerically implementing Eq. (1) over each control volume. Two types of FVD schemes are considered: node-centered schemes, in which solution values are defined at the mesh nodes, and cell-centered schemes, in which solutions are defined at the centroids of the control volumes. In the 2-D examples considered here, the primal meshes are composed of triangular and quadrilateral cells; in 3-D computations, the cells are tetrahedral, prismatic, or hexahedral. The *median-dual* partition [18,19] used to generate control volumes for the node-centered discretization is illustrated in Fig. 1 for two dimensions. These nonoverlapping control volumes cover the entire computational domain and compose a mesh that is dual to the primal mesh. For cell-centered FVD schemes, the primal cells serve as control volumes (Fig. 1).

The discrete solution is represented as a piecewise linear function defined within either primal or dual cells. The discretizations are applied on a sequence of refined grids satisfying the *consistent-refinement property*. For global grid refinement, this property requires the characteristic distance across primal and dual cells to decrease consistently with an increase of the total number of degrees of freedom,  $N$ . The characteristic distance should tend to zero as  $N^{-1/d}$ , where  $d$  is the number of spatial dimensions. The property enables a meaningful assessment of the asymptotic order of error convergence. In particular, on 3-D unstructured meshes satisfying the consistent-refinement property, the discretization errors of second-order FVD schemes are expected to be proportional to  $N^{-2/3}$ .

An equivalent mesh size based on the degrees of freedom is defined as  $h_N = N^{-1/d}$ . An equivalent mesh size based on a characteristic distance is defined in terms of norms of the local control-volume function (i.e.,  $h_V = \|V^{1/d}\|$ , where  $\|\cdot\|$  is a norm of choice). For consistently refined meshes,  $h_V$  is a linear function of  $h_N$  for any computational subdomain (or the entire domain). The assessment of consistent refinement is purely geometric and could be done automatically by inspecting the meshes over local subsets of the domain. Such a technique is envisioned to be most useful during the

grid-generation phase to identify and repair regions in which the grids are not consistently refined.

To illustrate the concept, we analyze three unstructured tetrahedral grids generated around a sphere; the grids are composed of 25,473 nodes, 82,290 nodes, and 328,463 nodes. In Fig. 2, far-field and near-field views of the coarsest and finest surface grids are shown. In Fig. 3, variations of  $h_V$  based on the  $L_1$  and  $L_\infty$  norms of  $V^{1/3}$  are shown versus the equivalent mesh size  $h_N = N^{-1/3}$ , each normalized by the value on the coarsest grid. A consistently refined mesh variation is denoted by a dashed line in the figure. Based on the  $L_1$  norm,  $h_V$  is linear, but the  $h_V$  computed with the  $L_\infty$  norm shows that the mesh is not consistently refined. Examination of the grids in Fig. 2 confirms that the mesh near the far-field boundary is not consistently refined. Inviscid incompressible equations for the flow around a sphere have been discretized with a second-order node-centered FVD scheme and solved on these grids. The  $L_1$  norms of the errors in pressure over the field, shown versus  $h_V$  in Fig. 4, converge with second order, in spite of the inconsistent refinement. This result is attributed to solution variations being much larger near the surface than near the far-field boundary. Although not shown, we performed computations in a window restricted to a region near the outer boundary and verified that the discretization-error convergence order degrades.

### Windowing

To provide a framework for assessing performance of codes in specific large-scale computations, we introduce the concept of windowing. A window is an arbitrarily shaped subdomain within the computational domain serving as a reference frame for testing, and it usually contains a focal point of interest. Figure 5 shows a sketch of possible windows superimposed on an unstructured grid. Solid-line regions are shown with black focal points and dashed-line regions are shown with gray focal points; the latter regions preserve the body geometry (curvature) within the windows. Each test captures an entry from the three groups of features affecting error convergence: 1) problem-related features, 2) solution-related features, and 3) discretization/grid-related features.

The problem-related features are determined by the scope of required computations. Specifically, the features include the interior governing equations, various types of boundary conditions (e.g., inflow, outflow, tangency, no-slip, and symmetry), and the geometrical features characterizing boundaries (e.g., flat boundary, curved boundary, and sharp corners). To address the problem-related features, the windows should be placed in representative locations (interior, boundaries, corners, etc.).

The solution-related features account for variations in the solutions typically encountered, including smooth flows, shocks, stagnation regions, vortices, boundary layers, recirculating flows, etc. Each feature should be represented by a specific choice of the manufactured solution.

The discretization/grid-related features concern variations in meshes and discretization schemes. The features include the interior discretization scheme, discretization of boundary conditions, grid composition [e.g., combinations of advanced-layer (prismatic) regions with interior tetrahedral regions], approximation of geometry (flat panel or higher-order approximation), etc. Interfaces between regions with different types of meshes as well as allowed grid singularities (such as hanging nodes, degenerate cells, etc.) should be considered as separate grid-related features.

Within computational windows, the FVD scheme under study is supplemented with a set of boundary conditions at the interface between the interior and the windowing domain (see the white squares in Fig. 6); overspecification from the known manufactured solution is a typical choice. If the computational window is bounded by a physical boundary, the physical conditions are implemented at the boundary surface; overspecification can still be applied at the remaining interfaces (see the sketches of downscaled windows in Fig. 6). The freedom to choose the manufactured solution, the shape and size of the window, and the type of interface boundary conditions greatly simplifies testing. To verify a code for particular applications,

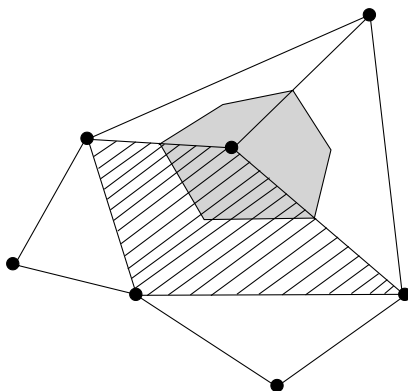


Fig. 1 Illustration of node-centered median-dual control volume (shaded) and cell-centered primal control volume (hashed) in FVD schemes.

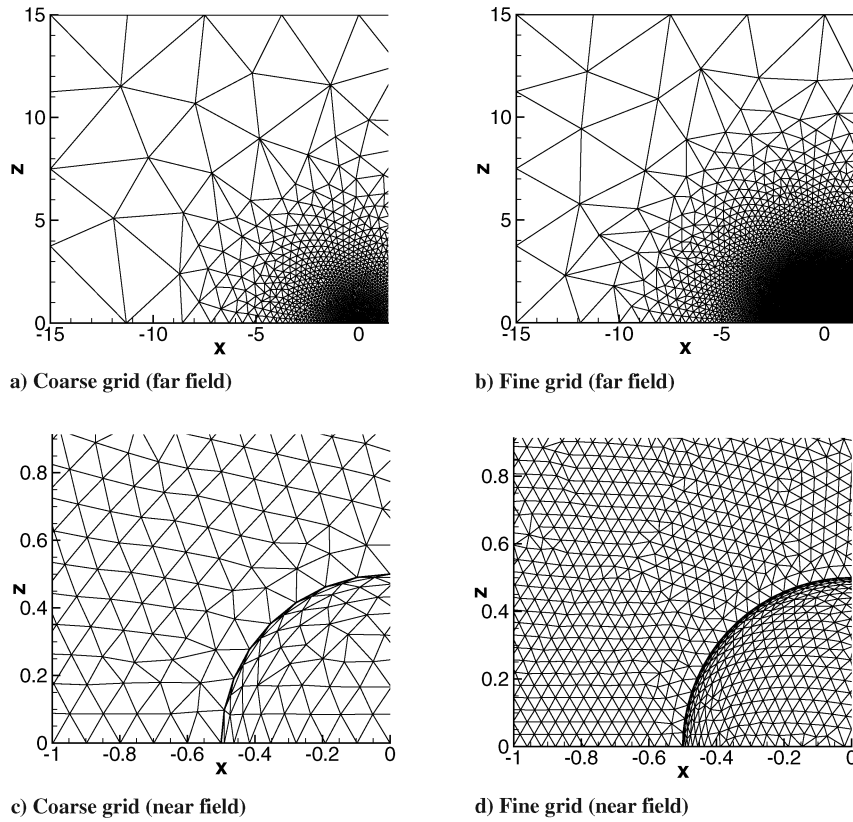


Fig. 2 Partial view of surface grids on symmetry plane and sphere.

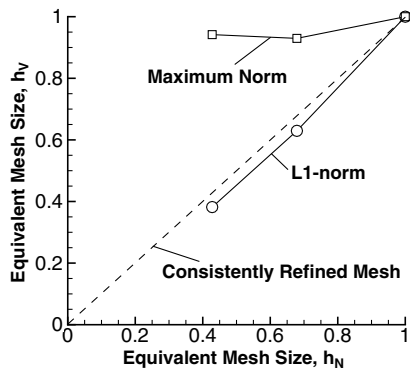


Fig. 3 Consistent-refinement check using normalized equivalent mesh sizes.

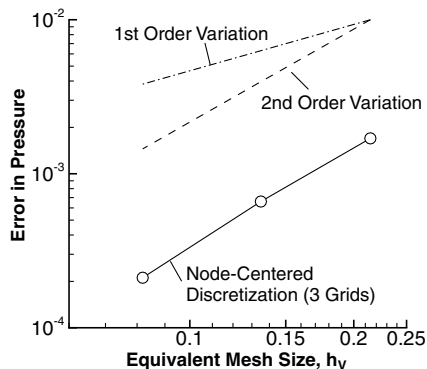


Fig. 4 Variation of  $L_1$  norm of error in pressure over the field with grid refinement.

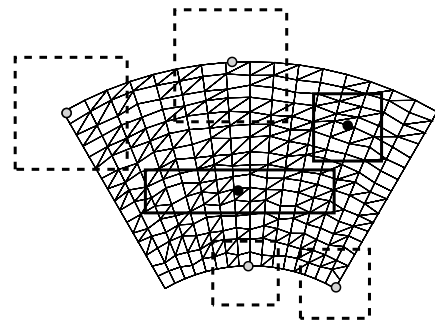
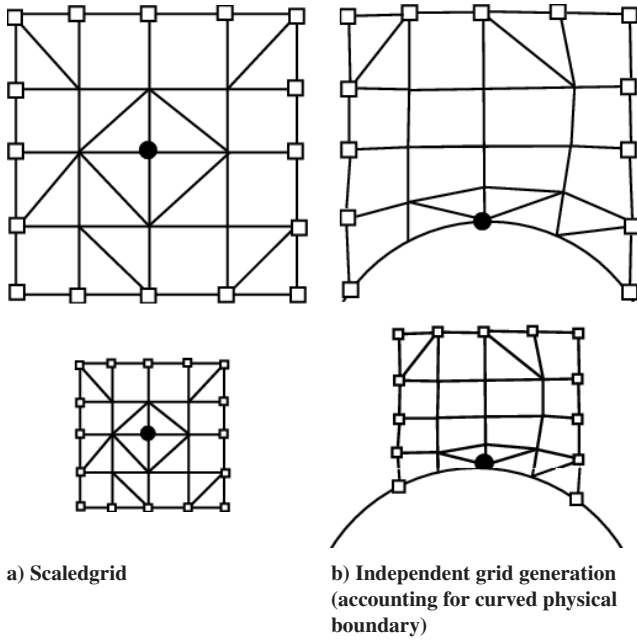


Fig. 5 Sketch of possible windows superimposed on an unstructured grid. Regions denoted by dashed line are windows preserving body geometry (with gray focal points).

each representative triplet of features requires a designated test; convergence of discretization errors observed in all representative tests should be understood and accepted as satisfactory.

### Downscaling Test

Establishing the discretization-error convergence order in global grid-refinement computations is often not practical because discrete solutions must be computed on grids with prohibitively many degrees of freedom. Constraining the computations to smaller windows makes them more affordable; the DS tests radically reduce the complexity by shrinking domains on grids with smaller mesh sizes, and so the number of degrees of freedom on each grid is kept (approximately) constant. Specifically, the DS test employs numerical computations on a sequence of contracted domains zooming toward a focal point within the original computational domain (Fig. 6). There are at least two possible strategies for grid generation on these contracted domains. The first strategy is termed a



**Fig. 6** Illustration of DS computational domains. Black bullets mark the focal points; white squares mark the interface between the interior and the DS-test domain.

*scaled grid* (Fig. 6a). With this strategy, the first (coarsest) computational domain is defined as a subdomain of the investigated global mesh containing the focal point; other (finer) domains and their mesh patterns are derived by scaling down this first domain [e.g., repeatedly multiplying all the distances from the focal point by a given factor (say,  $\frac{1}{2}$  or  $\frac{1}{4}$ )]. The scaled-grid approach is especially useful for studying interior discretizations and straight boundaries. It is impractical for studies near a general (discretely defined) curvilinear boundary, because the physical boundary shape should be preserved on each grid in the DS sequence. To overcome this limitation, an independent grid (Fig. 6b) can be generated on each domain, assuming a modified consistent-refinement property is satisfied; that is, the characteristic distance across a grid cell is scaled down with the same rate as the diameter of the contracted domains. This second strategy is termed *independent grid generation*.

The DS test evaluates local discretization-error convergence orders by comparing errors obtained in computations on different scales. The tests are performed in all representative computational windows for all representative triplet of features, as described in the Windowing section. The convergence of errors in the  $L_\infty$  norm observed in global grid-refinement computations will be bounded by the worst DS-test estimate. Global convergence in integral norms (e.g.,  $L_1$  norm) may be better than the worst DS estimate, because these norms are less sensitive to fluctuations occurring locally.

One should interpret the DS-test results carefully because they do not account for possible global discretization-error accumulation. In particular, on structured (regular) grids, convergence of discretization errors observed in DS tests is expected to be a higher order than that observed in grid-refinement computations. In our experience, DS-test estimates of the discretization-error convergence orders on all truly unstructured multidimensional grids (meaning grids with little or no geometric regularity) have been sharp predictors of convergence observed in grid-refinement tests.

In any case, as mentioned earlier, if the convergence of discretization error observed in DS testing is slower than expected, this is an unambiguous indication of deficiencies in either formulation or implementation. Some deficiencies may be found acceptable (for example, when large discretization errors are generated locally and remain local) without affecting integral norms of the errors computed over the entire domain. As an example, for inviscid equations at stagnation, the convergence of discretization errors of velocity components tends to degenerate by one order [3].

This degeneration may or may not be noticed, depending on the flow Reynolds number. Even if observed, the increased discretization error may stay local and not affect convergence of the  $L_1$  norms of the discretization errors.

### Example 1: Two-Dimensional Laplace Equation

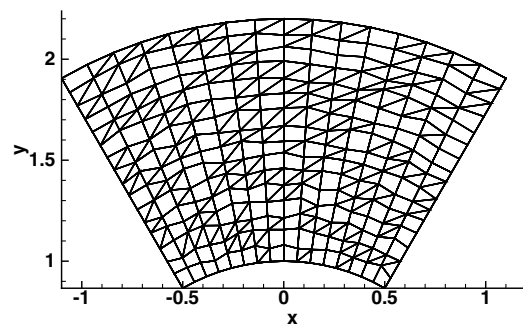
To illustrate applications of the verification methodology, we first consider the two-dimensional Laplace equation as a model of the diffusion terms in the Navier–Stokes equations,

$$\Delta U = f \quad (8)$$

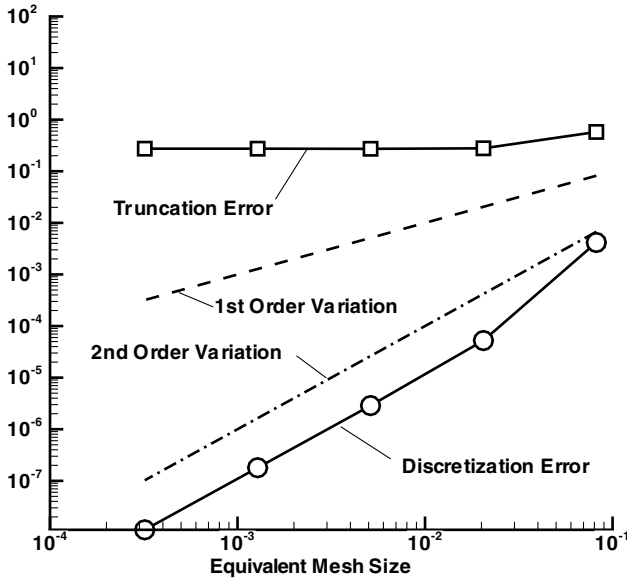
subject to Dirichlet boundary conditions. The equations are discretized with a second-order node-centered FVD scheme defined on a series of random mixed-element grids composed of triangles and quadrilaterals. The scheme is defined on median-dual control volumes and uses a combination of edge derivatives and Green–Gauss method for evaluating fluxes. Details of the discretization can be found elsewhere [3,20]. The manufactured solution and forcing term are taken as  $U = [\sin^2(\pi x) + \sin^2(\pi y)]/2$  and  $f = -2\pi^2[1 - \cos^2(\pi x) - \cos^2(\pi y)]$ .

For illustration purposes, the computations performed in windows contracted toward the center of the domain are compared with global grid-refinement computations. For global grid refinement, each grid is formed from an underlying structured quadrilateral grid (Fig. 7). In terms of a polar  $(r, \theta)$  coordinate system, the grid extent is defined as  $\theta \in [\pi/3, 2\pi/3]$  in the circumferential direction and  $r \in [1, 2.2]$  in the radial direction. The decision to split (or not to split) each structured quadrangle into triangles is determined randomly; approximately half of the quadrilaterals are split. In addition, the interior grid points are perturbed from their original position by random shifts in the range  $(-\sqrt{2}/6$  to  $\sqrt{2}/6)$  of the local mesh size in the radial direction. The sequences of globally refined grids are generated with  $2^{n+3} + 1$  points in both the radial and circumferential directions, where  $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$ . The sequences of DS grids are generated from a grid with 17 points in both the nominal radial and circumferential directions and downsampled about the center of the domain ( $r = 1.6$  and  $\theta = \pi/2$ ) by a factor  $2^{-s}$ , where  $s = 0, 2, 4, 6, 8$ . The grid topology remains unchanged.

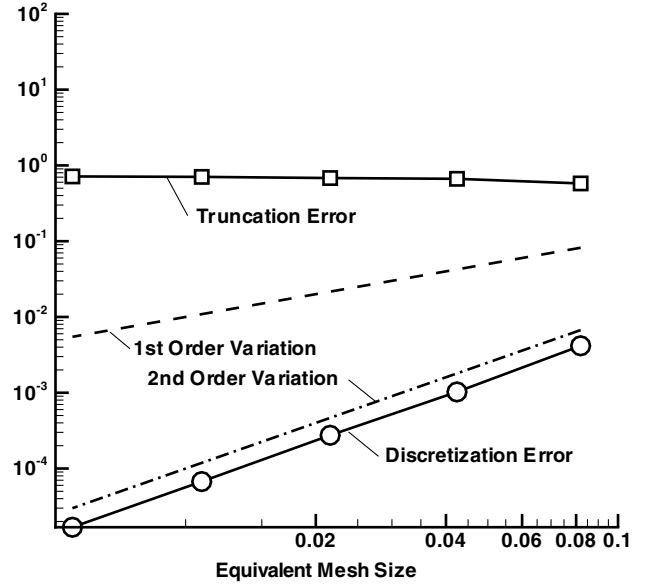
The  $L_1$  norms of truncation and discretization errors are shown in Fig. 8 versus an equivalent mesh-size parameter  $h_V$ . Although not shown, error convergence rates in the  $L_\infty$  norm are the same as the  $L_1$ -norm rates. In grid-refinement computations, the truncation errors remain  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  and the discretization errors converge with second order, precisely as predicted by the DS test. The reason for the  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  convergence of truncation errors is grid irregularity stemming from the usage of truly unstructured grids. As mentioned previously, the literature frequently associates  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  convergence of truncation errors on irregular grids with an indication of an inconsistent scheme that never converges to the exact result; [13,21] this example clearly shows that design-order convergence of truncation errors is not a necessary condition.



**Fig. 7** A typical mixed-element unstructured grid generated with random splitting and random perturbation of the underlying quadrilateral grid.



a) DS test



b) Grid-refinement test

Fig. 8 Convergence of the discretization and truncation errors for the Laplace equation solved on irregular mixed-element unstructured grids.

### Example 2: Two-Dimensional Incompressible Euler Equations

In this section, we consider incompressible inviscid equations in the interior and next to the curved tangency boundary. Inviscid fluxes for conservation of mass and momentum are defined as

$$\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{f}\bar{\mathbf{i}} + \mathbf{g}\bar{\mathbf{j}} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta u \\ u^2 + p \\ uv \end{bmatrix} \bar{\mathbf{i}} + \begin{bmatrix} \beta v \\ uv \\ v^2 + p \end{bmatrix} \bar{\mathbf{j}} \quad (9)$$

where the vector of unknowns ( $Q = [u, v, p]$ ) includes the Cartesian velocities and the pressure, and  $\beta$  is an artificial compressibility parameter [20] taken as  $\beta = 1$  here.

Two common FVD schemes with design second-order accuracy are investigated: an edge-reconstruction median-dual node-centered scheme and a cell-centered scheme. The node-centered FVD scheme uses the least-squares method for gradient reconstruction and integration over the control-volume boundaries employing split (upwind) fluxes evaluated at the edge medians; details of the discretization can be found elsewhere [3,20]. The cell-centered FVD scheme also employs the least-squares method for gradient reconstruction [18]. Numerical tests are performed for a nonlifting flow around a cylinder of unit radius centered at the origin. The analytical solution for this problem is well known [3].

The first set of tests is performed to study the accuracy of the interior discretization. The computational domain is shifted away from the surface of the cylinder:  $1.5 \leq r \leq 4$  and  $2\pi/3 \leq \theta \leq 4\pi/3$ . The two FVD schemes are studied on random triangular and random mixed-element grids. Examples of unstructured grids derived from an underlying structured grid are shown in Fig. 9. Grid randomization is introduced through random splitting (or not splitting) of structured quadrilateral cells. Each cell has equal probabilities to introduce either of the two diagonal choices or, for mixed-element grids, no diagonals.

For each formulation, grid-refinement and DS tests are performed. In global grid-refinement computations, the underlying structured grid is refined by doubling the number of intervals in the radial and angular directions. Randomization is introduced independently on each scale. The inflow boundary conditions are enforced at the boundary corresponding to the external radius; outflow conditions are enforced at all other boundaries. In the DS test, the coarsest  $9 \times 9$  grid is scaled down around the point  $r = 2.75$  and  $\theta = \pi$  by multiplying all angular and radial differences from this point by a factor of 0.5. Table 2 summarizes the convergence of discretization

and truncation errors observed in these tests. The convergence orders are the same between DS and grid refinement in all norms and for all variables and equations. The results are typical of our experience in comparing DS and grid-refinement tests for unstructured grids.

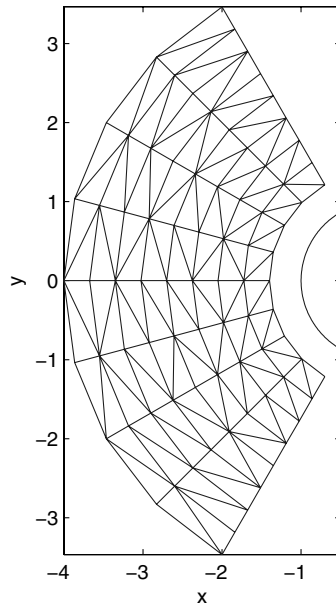
The observed discretization-error convergence rates indicate that the edge-reconstruction node-centered FVD scheme is second-order-accurate on triangular grids, but only first-order-accurate on mixed-element grids; the cell-centered formulation is second-order-accurate on all studied grids. There are many ways to recover second-order accuracy with the node-centered FVD scheme on mixed-element grids. For example, second- and third-order node-centered schemes have been demonstrated with face-reconstruction techniques for flux evaluation [3].

For the edge-reconstruction node-centered scheme, we have also observed first-order convergence of discretization errors with randomly perturbed quadrilateral grids. The results are consistent with a previous publication [22], but contradict another [13]. In the latter reference,  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  convergence of discretization errors on randomly perturbed quadrilateral grids with a central scheme was observed. Although not shown, we have implemented a central version of the edge-reconstruction node-centered scheme and tested it for various unstructured grids. We observed first-order convergence of discretization errors on mixed-element and random quadrilateral grids; an in-depth investigation of the discrepancies has been reported elsewhere [3].

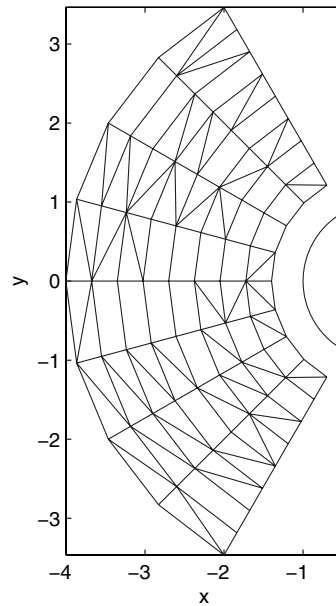
Another series of tests has been performed to study the accuracy of the FVD schemes at the curved tangency boundary; both schemes use isotropic triangular grids approximating the curved tangency boundary by straight segments linking grid nodes located at the physical boundary. The approximation is illustrated in Fig. 10a. The discrete tangency condition is enforced weakly over the straight segments.

A sequence of random triangular grids is generated at the top of the cylinder ( $1 \leq r \leq 2.2$  and  $\pi/3 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi/3$ ); a grid example is shown in Fig. 10b. Figure 11 illustrates convergence of the  $L_1$  norm of truncation and discretization errors in DS tests performed with the node-centered edge-reconstruction FVD scheme. Figure 11a exhibits convergence observed in the DS test with the focal point in the middle of the tangency boundary; Fig. 11b shows results for the DS test with the focal point next to the inflow/tangency corner. See the sketches in Fig. 11, in which the open squares denote boundaries with overspecification.

Convergence deterioration is clearly observed in the DS test performed with the inflow/tangency boundary conditions, indicating



a) Random triangular



b) Random mixed

**Fig. 9** Typical unstructured grids for a computational domain shifted away from the surface of the cylinder.

local loss of second-order accuracy. This local accuracy deterioration is explained and repaired elsewhere [3]. Although not shown, the  $L_1$  norms of the discretization errors in the corresponding grid-refinement test show the second-order convergence, whereas the  $L_\infty$  norms of the errors converge with first order. These tests can serve as examples that local accuracy deterioration can be acceptable if the

cause and effect on discretization errors are fully understood. Analogous DS tests (not shown) performed for the cell-centered FVD scheme yielded second-order convergence of discretization errors at the interior tangency and at the inflow/tangency corner.

### Example 3: Two-Dimensional Compressible Euler Equations

In this section, we solve the compressible Euler equations for the flow over the smooth bump in a channel considered previously by Casper et al. [23]. Using a sheared Cartesian grid mapping, sequences of quadrilateral grids were generated. Mixed-element grids were generated by randomly splitting half of the quadrilateral elements into two triangular elements; the mixed-element grid with 41 and 25 points in the longitudinal and vertical directions, respectively, is shown in Fig. 12. Quadrilateral-element and mixed-element computations are shown for both node-centered and cell-centered formulations. Both formulations use a least-squares method for gradient reconstruction and an approximate flux-difference-splitting scheme.

Tangency boundary conditions were applied on the upper and lower walls, and freestream conditions corresponding to a Mach number of 0.3 were specified at the upstream and downstream locations. In this formulation, the approximate Riemann solver identifies appropriate inflow and outflow fluxes and a tare drag results, attributable to vorticity introduced at the upstream boundary. With an infinitely long channel, the tare drag asymptotes to zero.

Grid-refinement computations are shown in Fig. 13 of the drag minus the tare drag contribution of an infinitely refined mesh. The finest grid contained 641 and 385 points in the longitudinal and vertical directions, respectively. Both quadrilateral-element computations show a third-order variation in the integral measure of net drag. Although not shown, comparison of entropy errors, similar to the technique used by Casper et al. [23], verified that the computations are second-order-accurate. The mixed-element cell-centered computation is second-order-accurate. The mixed-element node-centered computation is only first-order-accurate because of the median-dual approximation of the flux. Windowing computations in the interior of the mesh, not shown, accurately predicted the lower-order behavior of the median-dual approximation for the node-centered mixed-element meshes.

### Recommendations on Verification Procedure

In this section, we provide recommendations on choosing relevant tests to verify a code for a large-scale computation; the illustrative examples are motivated by the recent drag prediction workshops [2].

There are two preliminary tests concerned with truncation-error computations (no need to compute discrete solutions), which are useful for confirming consistency of the investigated FVD scheme. The first test is performed for a smooth manufactured solution at fully interior discretizations on *regular-structured*, consistently refined meshes; design-order convergence of truncation errors is expected. The second test is performed for a conservation law equation and a manufactured solution that produces linear fluxes: for example, mass conservation with constant density and linear velocity variations, or momentum conservation with constant density, constant velocity, and linear pressure variations. Second-order (or higher) FVD

**Table 2** Convergence of discretization and truncation errors for various unstructured-grid formulations of the 2-D inviscid incompressible equations on an inflow/outflow computational domain

Formulation	Downscaling computations		Grid-refinement computations	
	Truncation error	Discretization error	Truncation error	Discretization error
Node-centered, random triangular grid	$\mathcal{O}(h)$	$\mathcal{O}(h^2)$	$\mathcal{O}(h)$	$\mathcal{O}(h^2)$
Node-centered, mixed-element grid	$\mathcal{O}(1)$	$\mathcal{O}(h)$	$\mathcal{O}(1)$	$\mathcal{O}(h)$
Cell-centered, random triangular grid	$\mathcal{O}(h)$	$\mathcal{O}(h^2)$	$\mathcal{O}(h)$	$\mathcal{O}(h^2)$
Cell-centered, mixed-element grid	$\mathcal{O}(h)$	$\mathcal{O}(h^2)$	$\mathcal{O}(h)$	$\mathcal{O}(h^2)$

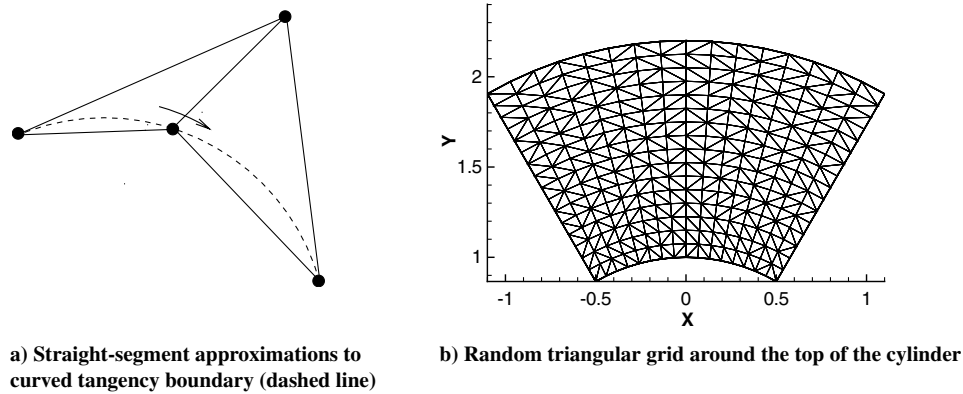
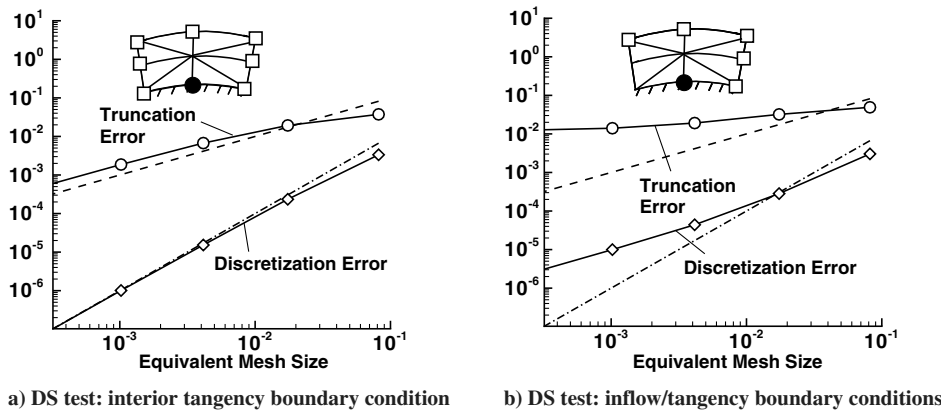


Fig. 10 Boundary approximation and grids for DS test of local boundary conditions.

Fig. 11 Convergence of the  $L_1$  norm of  $x$ -momentum truncation errors and discretization errors in  $u$  observed in DS tests performed on random triangular grids surrounding the top tangency boundary of the unit cylinder; dashed and dashed-dotted lines denote first- and second-order error variations; open squares denote boundaries with overspecification.

schemes are expected to exhibit zero truncation errors for equations associated with linear fluxes on *any* mesh.

Assuming the FVD scheme passed these consistency tests, the first step toward forming a library of tests is to formulate a list (as complete as possible) of relevant problem-, solution- and discretization/grid-related features. The following list has been compiled for a mixed-element unstructured-grid solver considered for computations of a viscous flow around an airfoil.

1) *Problem-related features* include Navier–Stokes equations with a given set of parameters, such as Mach and Reynolds numbers; turbulence model; far-field, symmetry, and no-slip boundary conditions; straight or smoothly curved profiles for the far-field and symmetry boundaries; and smooth and discontinuous boundary profiles for the airfoil surface. Each problem-related feature is addressed by choosing an appropriate computational window.

2) *Solution-related features* include smooth flow, stagnation flow, vortex, shock, boundary layer, and flow separation. Various solution features are allowed to interact. Each solution-related feature is addressed by choosing an appropriate manufactured solution.

3) *Discretization/grid-related features* include the interior FVD scheme, boundary discretization scheme, advanced-layer prismatic meshes within the boundary layers, and general tetrahedral meshes in the exterior. Interfaces between the regions with different meshing and mesh singularities should be considered as separate grid-related

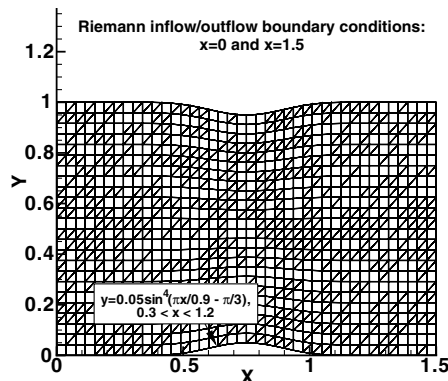


Fig. 12 Mixed-element grid for smooth bump in channel.

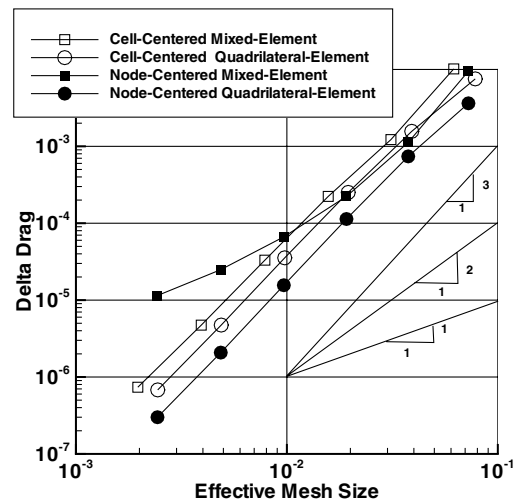


Fig. 13 Comparison of drag variation with effective mesh size for quadrilateral and mixed-element grids for subsonic flow over smooth bump in channel.



features. Each feature is addressed in testing by constructing the grid (grid-refinement generally requires additional grid generation, whereas a DS test may not) and by applying appropriate discrete equations.

A designated test should be designed for each relevant triplet of features, one from each group. Not all triplets are relevant; for example, there is no need to test the combination of a far-field boundary and a boundary-layer solution.

As examples, let us consider the tests recommended for verifying the interior discrete viscous equations (problem-related feature) for smooth solutions away from stagnation (solution-related feature). A computational window is placed away from all physical boundaries and a representative smooth manufactured solution is chosen. In tests performed within this window, second-order convergence of discretization errors is expected. At least four basic combinations of nonsingular meshes should be considered as grid-related features: 1) general prismatic meshes, 2) general tetrahedral meshes, 3) random mixed-element meshes, and 4) meshes with a smooth interface between the prismatic and tetrahedral regions. If certain mesh singularities (e.g., hanging nodes, zero-volume elements, and types of elements other than triangular prisms and tetrahedrons) are allowed, they should be considered in separate tests, usually in combination with the four basic nonsingular meshes.

For verifying the formulation for smooth solutions in the vicinity of a smooth surface, one has to place the window at the surface and perform tests with general prismatic meshes and manufactured solutions representing boundary-layer flow, stagnation flow, and separated flow. For testing smooth solutions around sharply angled parts of the airfoil surface, the same manufactured solutions should be tested on general mixed-element meshes. We have explored only a subset of the recommended practices to date. In particular, the expected asymptotic behavior for discontinuous solutions has yet to be addressed.

## Conclusions

New methodology for verification of finite volume computational methods using unstructured grids has been presented. The discretization-order properties are studied within computational windows and address a combination of problem-, solution-, and discretization/grid-related features affecting discretization-error convergence. The windows can be adjusted to isolate particular elements of the computational scheme or tailored to pinpoint regions of interest. Studies can use traditional grid-refinement computations within a fixed window or downscaling, in which computations are made within windows contracting toward a focal point of interest. The only constraint on the grids is that of consistent refinement, enabling a meaningful assessment of asymptotic error convergence on unstructured grids. This concept can be applied to assess families of mapped (block-structured) grids as well. Demonstrations of the method have been shown, including a comparative accuracy assessment of commonly used schemes on general mixed grids and the identification of local accuracy deterioration at boundary intersections. Recommendations to enable attainment of design-order discretization errors for large-scale computational simulations have been given. Perhaps the biggest roadblock to wider usage is that the complete process requires manufactured solutions appropriate to the application and such manufactured solutions are not widely available.

The second possible usage of the accuracy assessment methodology proposed in this paper is in the development of algorithms. Because developments are usually performed in a small-scale environment, demonstrations are simpler than large-scale applications and testing can use both downscaling and grid-refinement approaches relatively easily. Also, appropriate manufactured solutions are easier to construct. Oftentimes, improvements are needed to overcome observed shortcomings of a given scheme and the methodology can be used to pinpoint deficiencies and demonstrate improved capability. A buildup procedure can be used to verify elements of a proposed scheme in a methodical fashion, from interior residual discretizations to

boundary residuals. Although we do not emphasize it here, we have found the overall process to be useful in developing efficient solvers, as well as discretizations, for unstructured-grid schemes.

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