

# Towards Coupled Nonhydrostatic-Hydrostatic Hybridizable Discontinuous Galerkin Method

by

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Submitted to the Center for Computational Science and Engineering  
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## Abstract

Numerical modelling of ocean physics is essential for multiple applications such as scientific inquiry and climate change but also renewable energy, transport, autonomy, fisheries, water, harvesting, tourism, communication, conservation, planning, and security. However, the wide range of scales and interactions involved in ocean dynamics make numerical modelling challenging and expensive. Many regional ocean models resort to a hydrostatic (HS) approximation that significantly reduces the computational burden. However, a challenge is to capture and study local ocean phenomena involving complex dynamics over a broader range of scales, from regional to small scales, and resolving nonlinear internal waves, subduction, and overturning. Such dynamics require multi-resolution non-hydrostatic (NHS) ocean models. It is known that the main computational cost for NHS models arises from solving a globally coupled elliptic PDE for the NHS pressure. Optimally reducing these costs such that the NHS dynamics are resolved where needed is the motivation for this work.

We propose a new multi-dynamics model to decompose a domain into NHS and HS dynamic regions and solve the corresponding models in their subdomains, reducing the cost associated with the NHS pressure solution step. We extend a high-order NHS solver developed using the hybridizable discontinuous Galerkin (HDG) finite element methodology by taking advantage of the local and global HDG solvers for combining HS with NHS solvers. The multi-dynamics is derived, and the first version is implemented in the HDG framework to quantify computational costs and evaluate accuracy using several analyses. We first showcase results on Rayleigh Taylor instability-driven striations to evaluate computational savings and accuracy compared to the standard NHS HDG and finite-volume solvers. We highlight and discuss sensitivities and performance. Finally, we explore parameters that can be used to identify domain regions exhibiting NHS behaviour, allowing the algorithm to dynamically evolve the NHS and HS subdomains.

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Applications of numerical modelling of ocean physics range from scientific inquiry and global climate change to renewable energy, autonomy, fisheries, path planning and environmental conservation. Over the last few decades, the exponential increase in computational power and the emergence of novel numerical methods have led to significant advances in ocean modelling [24, 23, 90, 89]. Yet, accurate numerical simulations of large-scale three-dimensional ocean problems are often prohibitively computationally expensive. Therefore, methods to optimize these simulations and make them more computationally tractable are currently a subject of active research.

The multi-scale interactions associated with ocean dynamics make numerical modelling challenging and expensive. Most regional ocean models employ a hydrostatic (HS) approximation [49, 15] that significantly reduces the computational burden. The validity of the hydrostatic approximation relies on the fact that for typical ocean processes, the aspect ratio, defined as the ratio of the vertical to the horizontal scale of the motion, is very small. However, this approximation breaks down when the aspect ratio becomes substantial, and this limits hydrostatic models from being able to capture and study complex non-hydrostatic (NHS) ocean phenomena.

Non-hydrostatic phenomena [37, 97], such as nonlinear internal waves [110, 45], subduction and overturning, are believed to be the link between the slow-moving large-scale motions and the high-speed mixing scales in the ocean [34]. Such NHS behaviour, in the form of nonlinear internal solitary waves, was observed in the Lu-

zon Strait and South China Sea [10]. Some low-order ocean models [11, 48, 52, 69] with non-hydrostatic capability include the SUNTANS [35], the MIT GCM [72], PSOM [70, 71], Oceananigans [91], MERF v3.0 [100], FVCOM [55, 56] and CROCO-ROMS [86, 96]. Over the last few decades, high-order methods [54] have emerged as candidates for non-hydrostatic ocean modelling but are still nascent. A Hybridizable Discontinuous Galerkin (HDG) [77, 78] discretization scheme based on the pressure-projection method [16, 101, 6] for the incompressible Navier-Stokes and non-hydrostatic ocean equations were presented in [103, 106]. This model has also been extended to study biological processes in regions such as Stellwagen Bank in Massachusetts [104, 102, 107]. More recently, a Discontinuous Galerkin multi-layered non-hydrostatic coastal ocean model was presented in [82, 83].

Typically, non-hydrostatic ocean models are based on the pressure decomposition proposed in [12], which splits the pressure into a sum of hydrostatic and non-hydrostatic components. This results in a globally coupled three-dimensional pressure-Poisson equation (PPE) to be solved to compute the non-hydrostatic pressure component. However, for large-scale ocean problems, this PPE is poorly conditioned because the vertical and horizontal second-derivative terms are typically two orders of magnitudes apart [35, 111], drastically increasing the computational cost. Furthermore, it is understood [110] that accurate simulations of non-hydrostatic effects come with a significant horizontal resolution requirement that might be beyond the reach the current state-of-the-art ocean solvers.

## 1.1 Present Research

In this thesis, as a method to mitigate the computational challenge posed by NHS simulations, we start developing a multi-dynamics algorithm to decompose a domain into NHS and HS dynamic regions and solve the corresponding models in their subdomains, thereby reducing the cost associated with the NHS pressure solution step. We take a look at the advantages and disadvantages of different coupling approaches for the NHS and HS subdomains before presenting our novel projection-method-based



coupling strategy. Implementation details are explained while addressing key questions related to communication between subdomains and boundary condition treatment at the subdomain interfaces. We then explore parameters that can be used to identify domain regions exhibiting NHS behaviour, allowing the algorithm to change the NHS and HS subdomains dynamically. Finally, we show results from a first implementation of this algorithm on an idealized test case to quantify computational costs, evaluate the accuracy, and compare against the standard NHS HDG and finite-volume solvers.

Some of the questions that motivate our research include: Could we use and interconnect different models in different regions based on the local dynamics in these regions? How could we accurately couple these modeling subdomains with different dynamics? What are the correct boundary conditions and global dynamical effects across such multi-dynamics interconnected subdomains? What are ideal schemes and implementations for facilitating communication among subdomains that employ different governing equations and solvers? Can we find and employ specific parameters to anticipate and predict the local dynamics of subdomains? Using these parameters, can we adapt the equations used in the subdomains dynamically? When do multi-dynamics solvers become inefficient, e.g., when should the most complex dynamics be used everywhere? In what follows, we will start to address some of the questions.

## 1.2 Thesis Outline

Here we describe the outline of the thesis with a synopsis of each chapter for the sake of the reader's convenience.

- *Chapter 1 - Introduction:* A brief introduction to the application of numerical modelling for ocean dynamics highlighting the current state of research and motivation for this thesis.
- *Chapter 2 - Numerical Methods for Ocean Modelling:* An overview of the derivation of the hydrostatic and non-hydrostatic ocean equations followed by a dis-

cussion on the pressure-projection method and the HDG framework.

- *Chapter 3 - Multi-Dynamics model*: Methods to improve NHS solver efficiency are discussed, and the proposed multi-dynamics algorithm is derived with attention to implementation details.
- *Chapter 4 - Numerical Investigation*: An idealized test case of Rayleigh -Taylor-instability driven striation is used to conduct numerical experiments that implement the multi-dynamics model and estimate accuracy and computational savings.
- *Chapter 5 - Conclusion and Future Work*: Results from this thesis are summarized and possible extensions of this work are examined.

# Chapter 2

## Numerical Methods for Ocean Modelling

The non-linear and anisotropic nature of ocean dynamics makes ocean modelling a challenging endeavour. The scales associated with ocean phenomena can range from seconds to geological time scales and meters to thousands of kilometres. Historically, finite volume methods have been the popular choice for ocean modelling and computational fluid dynamics (CFD) in general. However, finite element methods offer tools for tackling large-scale multi-resolution simulations on unstructured grids in a computationally tractable fashion. A finite element method with unstructured grid capabilities was used for non-hydrostatic modelling for the first time in [29] and later extended to accommodate a free-surface in [87]. Over the last couple of decades, Discontinuous Galerkin (DG) finite element methods have gained popularity in the CFD community. These methods offer high-order accuracy on unstructured grids and are well-suited for modern-day parallel computing. DG finite element methods have been applied to hydrostatic models in the context of the shallow water equations with success in [24, 23] and other ocean and lake dynamics [108, 94, 43, 26]. We refer to [44] for an introduction to DG methods.

In this chapter, we review the non-hydrostatic and hydrostatic forms of the ocean dynamics equations and discuss the projection method used to solve the two sets of equations as described in [103]. We then provide a brief overview of the hybridizable

Discontinuous Galerkin (HDG) finite element method and its application to such ocean dynamics.

## 2.1 Ocean Dynamics Equations

The equations governing ocean dynamics, also known as the primitive equations (PE), are derived from the Navier-Stokes equations augmented with Coriolis forcing along with transport equations for temperature and salinity, and an equation of state [20]. It's also common to consider a density decomposition based on the *Boussinesq approximation* which is rooted in the fact that density variations in the ocean are typically small in magnitude ( $\approx 1\%$ ). The density is split into a constant mean density  $\rho_0$  and a spatially and temporally varying perturbation as

$$\rho(\underline{x}, t) = \rho_0 + \rho'(\underline{x}, t) \quad \text{where} \quad |\rho'(\underline{x}, t)| \ll \rho_0 \quad (2.1)$$

Since typical ocean processes possess vastly different length scales and time scales along the vertical and horizontal directions, we define the state variables as the horizontal velocities  $\underline{u} = [u, v, 0]$ , vertical velocity  $\underline{w} = [0, 0, w]$ , pressure  $p$ , density  $\rho$ , temperature  $T$  and salinity  $S$ . Using the Boussinesq approximation and an eddy-viscosity closure model we can write the governing equations as [103].

$$\frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial t} + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u} \underline{u} + \nabla_z \cdot \underline{w} \underline{u} = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \nabla_{xy} p + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \nu_{xy} \nabla_{xy} \underline{u} \quad (2.2)$$

$$+ \nabla_z \cdot \nu_z \nabla_z \underline{u} - f \hat{k} \times \underline{u} + \frac{1}{\rho_0} \underline{f}_u$$

$$\frac{\partial \underline{w}}{\partial t} + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u} \underline{w} + \nabla_z \cdot \underline{w} \underline{w} = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \nabla_z p + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \nu_{xy} \nabla_{xy} \underline{w} \quad (2.3)$$

$$+ \nabla_z \cdot \nu_z \nabla_z \underline{w} + \frac{\rho}{\rho_0} \underline{g} + \frac{1}{\rho_0} \underline{f}_w$$

$$\nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u} + \nabla_z \cdot \underline{w} = 0 \quad (2.4)$$

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u} T + \nabla_z \cdot \underline{w} T = \nabla_{xy} \cdot \kappa_{xy} \nabla_{xy} T + \nabla_z \cdot \kappa_z \nabla_z T + f_T, \quad (2.5)$$

$$\frac{\partial S}{\partial t} + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u} S + \nabla_z \cdot \underline{w} S = \nabla_{xy} \cdot \kappa_{xy} \nabla_{xy} S + \nabla_z \cdot \kappa_z \nabla_z S + f_S \quad (2.6)$$

$$\rho = \rho(S, T) \quad (2.7)$$

where the divergence operators are defined as  $\nabla_{xy} = \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, 0 \right]$  and  $\nabla_z = \left[ 0, 0, \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right]$ . The Coriolis parameter is denoted by  $f$ , the gravity vector by  $\underline{g} = [0, 0, -g]$  and the turbulent viscosities and diffusivities by  $\nu_{xy/z}$  and  $\kappa_{xy/z}$ .

We now consider a pressure decomposition formulation, as proposed in [12], wherein the pressure field is decomposed into hydrostatic and non-hydrostatic components as

$$p = p_{hyd} + \rho_0 p' \quad (2.8)$$

where the hydrostatic pressure is defined in terms of the density field and free-surface elevation  $\eta(x, y, t)$  as

$$p_{hyd}(x, y, z, t) = \int_z^{\eta(x, y, t)} \rho(x, y, \zeta, t) g d\zeta \quad (2.9)$$

We note that the vertical gradient of this hydrostatic pressure  $\nabla_z p_{hyd} = -g\rho$  exactly cancels the  $\frac{\rho}{\rho_0} g$  term in the vertical momentum equation. In a hydrostatic model, this means that the effects of the density forcing are fully captured in the horizontal momentum equations through  $p_{hyd}$ .

Introducing this pressure decomposition into the governing equations and adding

an equation for the free-surface elevation  $\eta(x, y, t)$  to satisfy the kinematic boundary condition at the free surface, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial t} + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u} \underline{u} + \nabla_z \cdot \underline{w} \underline{u} = & -\nabla_{xy} p' - \underline{g} \nabla_{xy} \eta - \frac{1}{\rho_0} \int_z^\eta \underline{g} \nabla_{xy} \rho' d\zeta \\ & + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \nu_{xy} \nabla_{xy} \underline{u} + \nabla_z \cdot \nu_z \nabla_z \underline{u} - f \hat{k} \times \underline{u} + \frac{1}{\rho_0} \underline{f}_u \end{aligned} \quad (2.10)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \underline{w}}{\partial t} + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u} \underline{w} + \nabla_z \cdot \underline{w} \underline{w} = & -\nabla_z p' + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \nu_{xy} \nabla_{xy} \underline{w} \\ & + \nabla \cdot \nu_z \nabla_z \underline{w} + \frac{1}{\rho_0} \underline{f}_w \end{aligned} \quad (2.11)$$

$$\nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u} + \nabla_z \cdot \underline{w} = 0 \quad (2.12)$$

$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \int_{-H}^\eta \underline{u} dz = 0 \quad (2.13)$$

which we will henceforth refer to, along with Eqs.2.5-2.6, as the non-hydrostatic (NHS) ocean equations. From this, we can derive the hydrostatic (HS) equations by setting  $p' \approx 0$ , which leads to

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \underline{u}}{\partial t} + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u} \underline{u} - \nabla_z \cdot \underline{w} \underline{u} = & -\underline{g} \nabla_{xy} \eta - \frac{1}{\rho_0} \int_z^\eta \underline{g} \nabla_{xy} \rho' d\zeta \\ & + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \nu_{xy} \nabla_{xy} \underline{u} + \nabla_z \cdot \nu_z \nabla_z \underline{u} - f \hat{k} \times \underline{u} + \frac{1}{\rho_0} \underline{f}_u \end{aligned} \quad (2.14)$$

$$\nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u} + \nabla_z \cdot \underline{w} = 0 \quad (2.15)$$

$$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \int_{-H}^\eta \underline{u} dz = 0 \quad (2.16)$$

This amounts to assuming that the vertical scales are much smaller in magnitude than the horizontal (similar to a thin fluid approximation from lubrication theory). In other words, we assume that

$$|w| \ll |u| \sim |v| \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \ll \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \sim \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \quad (2.17)$$

In Fig.2-1, we summarize the two sets of equations. Note that we have used the

<p style="text-align: center; color: blue; text-decoration: underline;">Nonhydrostatic Equations</p> $\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} - (\nabla \cdot (\nu \nabla \mathbf{u})) + \nabla \rho' + g \nabla_{xy} \eta \\ = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \int_z^\eta g \nabla_{xy} \rho' dz' - \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u}) + \frac{1}{\rho_0} \mathbf{f} \end{aligned}$	<p style="text-align: center; color: red; text-decoration: underline;">Hydrostatic Equations</p> $\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} - (\nabla \cdot (\nu \nabla \mathbf{u})) + \overbrace{0}^{\rho'=0} + g \nabla_{xy} \eta \\ = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \int_z^\eta g \nabla_{xy} \rho' dz' - \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{u}) + \frac{1}{\rho_0} \mathbf{f} \end{aligned}$
$\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \left( \int_{-H}^\eta \mathbf{u} dz \right) = 0$	
$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$	
$\frac{\partial \rho'}{\partial t} - \nabla \cdot (\kappa \nabla \rho') = -\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{u} \rho') + f_{\rho'}$	

Figure 2-1: A summary of the non-hydrostatic ocean equations (left) and hydrostatic ocean equations (right)

equation of state to replace the transport equation for temperature and salinity with a tracer equation for the density anomaly  $\rho'$ . Henceforth, we will be working with this form of the NHS and HS equations.

## 2.2 Projection Method

As is common for non-hydrostatic models [35, 72, 73], we solve the NHS and HS ocean equations using a pressure-projection method [16, 101] that decouples the velocities and the pressure. These methods are based on the Helmholtz decomposition, wherein vector fields are separated into divergence-free and irrotational parts. Generally, these schemes constitute an initial step where an intermediate velocity field is computed that doesn't satisfy the divergence-free constraint and a final step where a pressure correction is used to "project out" the divergence-producing part of the velocity field. Here we will summarize the steps in the semi-implicit pressure-projection method for the non-hydrostatic and hydrostatic ocean equations as presented in [103]. The initial steps of the scheme are common to the NHS and HS equations, but the final steps are different as listed below

1. First Velocity Predictor -  $\{p'^k, \eta^k\} \rightarrow \{\bar{u}^{k+1}, \bar{w}^{k+1}\}$

The first predictor velocities ( $\bar{u}^{k+1}$  and  $\bar{w}^{k+1}$ ) are computed by solving the momentum equation using the previous time-step values for the non-hydrostatic pressure  $p'^k$  and free-surface elevation  $\eta^k$

$$\frac{\bar{u}^{k+1}}{a\Delta t} - \nabla_z \cdot \nu_z \nabla_z \bar{u}^{k+1} + \nabla_{xy} p'^k + g \nabla_{xy} \eta^k = \underline{F}_u^{k,k+1} \quad (2.18)$$

$$\frac{\bar{w}^{k+1}}{a\Delta t} - \nabla_z \cdot \nu_z \nabla_z \bar{w}^{k+1} + \nabla_z p'^k = \underline{F}_w^{k,k+1} \quad (2.19)$$

where,

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{F}_u^{k,k+1} = & \frac{\underline{u}^k}{a\Delta t} - \frac{1}{\rho_0} \int_z^{\eta^k} g \nabla_{xy} \rho'^k d\zeta - \nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u}^k \underline{u}^k \\ & - \nabla_z \cdot \underline{w}^k \underline{u}^k + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \nu_{xy} \nabla_{xy} \underline{u}^k - f \hat{k} \times \underline{u}^k + \frac{1}{\rho_0} \underline{f}_u^{k,k+1} \end{aligned} \quad (2.20)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{F}_w^{k,k+1} = & \frac{\underline{w}^k}{a\Delta t} - \nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u}^k \underline{w}^k - \nabla_z \cdot \underline{w}^k \underline{w}^k \\ & + \nabla_{xy} \cdot \nu_{xy} \nabla_{xy} \underline{w}^k + \frac{1}{\rho_0} \underline{f}_w^{k,k+1} \end{aligned} \quad (2.21)$$

with Dirichlet and Neumann boundary conditions given as,

$$\bar{u}|_{\partial\Omega_D}^{k+1} = \underline{g}_{u,D} \quad \bar{w}|_{\partial\Omega_D}^{k+1} = \underline{g}_{w,D} \quad \frac{\partial \bar{u}}{\partial \hat{n}} \Big|_{\partial\Omega_N}^{k+1} = \underline{g}_{u,N} \quad \frac{\partial \bar{w}}{\partial \hat{n}} \Big|_{\partial\Omega_N}^{k+1} = \underline{g}_{w,N} \quad (2.22)$$

2. Free-surface Corrector -  $\bar{u}^{k+1} \rightarrow \delta\eta^{k+1}$

The free-surface kinematic condition equation is solved using the first predictor velocities to obtain the free-surface corrector for the next timestep as

$$\frac{\delta\eta^{k+1}}{a\Delta t} - \nabla_{xy} \cdot [a\Delta t g(\eta^k + H) \nabla_{xy} \delta\eta^{k+1}] = F_\eta^{k,k+1} \quad (2.23)$$

where  $H$  is the depth of the ocean and



$$F_\eta^{k,k+1} = -\nabla_{xy} \cdot \int_{-H}^{\eta^k} \bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1} dz \quad (2.24)$$

with boundary conditions ( $\partial\Omega_N$  and  $\partial\Omega_O$  are boundaries with wall and open conditions for the velocities, respectively)

$$\nabla_{xy} \delta\eta|_{\partial\Omega_N}^{k+1} \cdot \hat{n}_{xy} = \frac{1}{a\Delta t g(H + \eta^k)} \int_{-H}^{\eta^k} (\bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1} - \underline{g}_{u,D}) \cdot \hat{n}_{xy} dz \quad (2.25)$$

$$\delta\eta|_{\partial\Omega_O}^{k+1} = g_{\eta,O} \quad (2.26)$$

### 3. Free-surface corrections - $\{\bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1}, \delta\eta^{k+1}\} \rightarrow \{\bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1}, \bar{\underline{w}}^{k+1}, \eta^{k+1}\}$

The free-surface corrector and first velocity predictors are then used to algebraically compute the second predictor velocities and the free-surface elevation for the next timestep as

$$\bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1} = \underline{\bar{u}}^{k+1} - a\Delta t g \nabla_{xy} \delta\eta^{k+1} \quad \eta^{k+1} = \eta^k + \delta\eta^{k+1} \quad (2.27)$$

Once the second predictor velocities and the new free-surface elevations are computed, the steps followed to arrive at the final velocities differ for the NHS and HS equations.

### NHS equations:

#### 4. Pressure Corrector - $\bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1} \rightarrow \delta p',k+1$

The non-hydrostatic pressure correction is computed using the second predictor velocities by solving the following pressure-Poisson equation (PPE).

$$\nabla_{xy}^2 \delta p',k+1 + \nabla_z^2 \delta p',k+1 = \frac{\nabla_{xy} \cdot \bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1}}{a\Delta t} + \frac{\nabla_z \cdot \bar{\underline{w}}^{k+1}}{a\Delta t} \quad (2.28)$$

with boundary conditions ( $\partial\Omega_{NS,S}$ ,  $\partial\Omega_\eta$  and  $\partial\Omega_O$  are boundaries with no-slip, slip, free-surface and open boundary conditions for the velocities)

$$\nabla \delta p' \Big|_{\partial\Omega_{NS,S}}^{k+1} \cdot \hat{n} = \frac{1}{a\Delta t} (\bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1} - \underline{g}_{u,D}) \cdot \hat{n}_{xy} + \frac{1}{a\Delta t} (\bar{\underline{w}}^{k+1} - \underline{g}_{w,D}) \cdot \hat{n}_z \quad (2.29)$$

$$\nabla \delta p' \Big|_{\partial\Omega_\eta}^{k+1} = 0 \quad (2.30)$$

$$\nabla \delta p' \Big|_{\partial\Omega_o}^{k+1} = g_{O_{p'}} \quad (2.31)$$

#### 5. Final Velocity and Pressure - $\{\bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1}, \delta p'^{k+1}\} \rightarrow \{p'^{k+1}, \underline{u}^{k+1}\}$

The final divergence-free velocities and non-hydrostatic pressure are computed using the pressure corrector as

$$\underline{u}^{k+1} = \bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1} - a\Delta t \nabla_{xy} \delta p'^{k+1} \quad (2.32)$$

$$\underline{w}^{k+1} = \bar{\underline{w}}^{k+1} - a\Delta t \nabla_z \delta p'^{k+1} \quad (2.33)$$

$$p'^{k+1} = p'^k + \delta p'^{k+1} \quad (2.34)$$

### HS equations:

#### 4. Final Velocity - $\bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1} \rightarrow \underline{w}^{k+1}$

The second predictor horizontal velocities become the final horizontal velocities ( $\underline{u}^{k+1} = \bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1}$ ) and the final vertical velocities are reconstructed from the 3D continuity equation such that the divergence-free constraint is satisfied.

$$\nabla_z \cdot \underline{w}^{k+1} = -\nabla_{xy} \cdot \underline{u}^{k+1} \quad (2.35)$$

with boundary condition

$$\underline{w}^{k+1} \Big|_{-H} = -\underline{u}^{k+1} \cdot \nabla_{xy} H \quad (2.36)$$

## 2.3 Hybridizable Discontinuous Galerkin Method

Finite element methods offer high-order solutions and ease of implementation on unstructured grids which makes them suitable candidates for modelling flows in complex domains. In particular, the Discontinuous Galerkin (DG) finite element methods are very attractive for modelling advection-dominated flows as the discontinuous polynomial spaces can capture steep gradients and wave behaviour leading to stable and flexible schemes in comparison to the standard Continuous Galerkin (CG) finite element methods. It is also known that DG-FEM methods are well-suited for adaptive mesh refinement techniques which could be critical in alleviating the computational demand for large-scale ocean modelling.

Hybridizable discontinuous Galerkin (HDG) finite element methods were introduced in [19] for second-order elliptic problems to address one of the key drawbacks of DG methods which is the spatial duplication of degrees of freedom. HDG schemes allow for discontinuous solutions while solving globally coupled unknowns that only have support on the element interfaces. This results in a significantly reduced linear system to be solved and a comparison of the distribution of degrees of freedom for the CG-FEM, DG-FEM and HDG-FEM is shown in Fig.2-2. Since its invention, HDG has been applied to a wide variety of problems including linear and nonlinear convection-diffusion [78, 77], linear elasticity [99], Maxwell's equations [80, 2, 67], incompressible flows [18, 79] and compressible flows [85, 84, 76]. More recently, an HDG scheme for the incompressible Navier-Stokes with Boussinesq approximation based on projection method [16, 101] was proposed in [106, 102, 103, 107] with implementation refinements in [30, 33].

In HDG schemes, the element-local solutions are parameterized in terms of a numerical trace that lives on the global edge space. Then, a global problem is solved on this edge space by enforcing normal flux continuity and the computed values of the numerical trace are used to reconstruct the element-local solutions. Note that once the numerical trace is computed on the global edge space, the element-local solutions can be reconstructed in an independent and parallel fashion suitable for modern-day

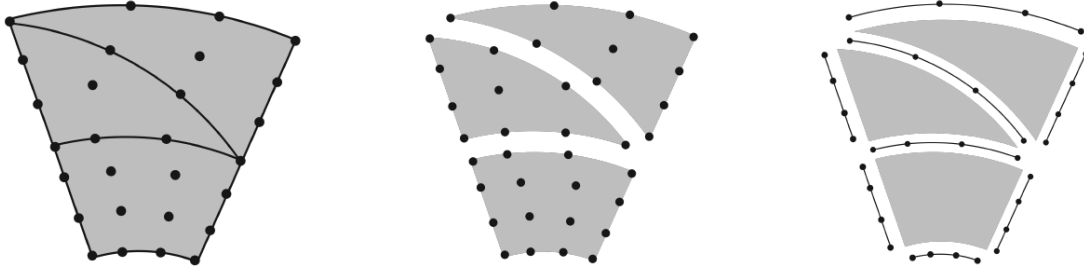


Figure 2-2: Schematic illustrating the coupled degrees of freedom for CG-FEM (left), DG-FEM (middle) and HDG-FEM (right) - taken from [31]

computer architecture. Furthermore, these schemes also allow for local, element-by-element postprocessing options to obtain new approximations by exploiting the superconvergence properties of the HDG [77] method.

# Chapter 3

## Multidynamics Model

Non-hydrostatic models are required to capture phenomena such as nonlinear internal waves, subduction, convection plumes and overturning which are believed to be crucial to the energy transfer between the slow-moving large-scale motions and the high-speed mixing scales in the ocean [34]. However, it is well-understood in the literature that relaxing the hydrostatic pressure constraint comes at a significant computational cost. The three-dimensional globally-coupled elliptic equation that needs to be solved for the non-hydrostatic pressure component (as shown in Section 2.2) accounts for the bulk of the workload in most NHS solvers [35, 73, 111]. This three-dimensional pressure-Poisson equation is poorly conditioned due to the fact that the vertical and horizontal second-derivative terms are typically two orders of magnitudes apart. Therefore, over the last few decades, research has been directed towards making NHS simulations more feasible. In this chapter, we briefly discuss works from the literature that address this issue and then present our proposed multi-dynamics model.

There have been many efforts made towards improving the efficiency of NHS models over the years. In [91], a non-hydrostatic finite-volume algorithm similar to the MIT GCM [72] is developed in the Julia programming language that solves geophysical flows on CPUs and GPUs. In [7], a three-mode time-split algorithm is developed for non-hydrostatic processes in free-surface ocean models. A semi-implicit and variable layers (SIVL) scheme for the non-hydrostatic pressure component calculation

was introduced in [100] as a method to improve solver efficiency. The PSOM model [70] uses a multigrid method to solve for the non-hydrostatic pressure component in a finite-volume framework.

Although most existing ocean solvers are low-order finite volume codes, there are a few high-order solvers including SEOM [74], the DG NHS code presented in [83, 82], and our MSEAS non-hydrostatic HDG ocean model [106, 33]. Such high-order methods are often able to produce more accurate solutions than low-order methods for similar computational costs [44, 104]. In [30], a distributed implementation of the HDG projection method algorithm is developed in the context of large-scale ocean simulations to make the computational cost more tractable. Adaptive mesh refinement schemes [32, 95, 88], which allow for resolution wherever necessary in the domain, have also been investigated as a means to alleviate the computational demand of NHS models.

Another approach for reducing the computational cost of these simulations is to use approximate NHS models. In [73], the authors propose a quasi-hydrostatic model wherein the precise balance between gravity and the forces due to the pressure gradient is relaxed by treating the Coriolis force exactly. However, this model does not account for an NHS pressure component and consequentially, the forces due to its gradient. A non-hydrostatic model with an isopycnal (density-following) coordinate system was proposed in [111] and it was demonstrated that this model is able to capture nonlinear internal solitary waves for some idealized ocean test cases. Yet, this model has a significant limitation in that its unable to represent unstable stratification and overturning effects that are commonly associated with non-hydrostatic phenomena.

### 3.1 Multi-Dynamics Model

The computational cost of non-hydrostatic models aside, a big reason why the majority of ocean models and solvers are based on the hydrostatic approximation is that these solvers can capture many oceanic processes very accurately. The hydrostatic

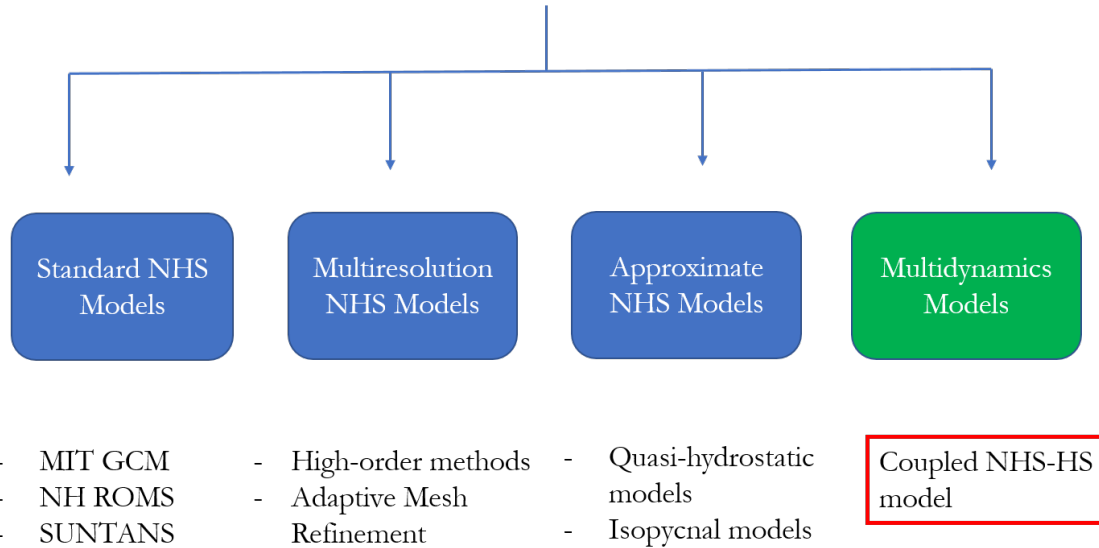


Figure 3-1: Different approaches to deal with the high computational cost associated with non-hydrostatic simulations

primitive equations (HPE) are capable of capturing the global circulation of oceans, wind-driven gyres, geostrophic eddies, and many such features that exhibit horizontal length scales much larger than the vertical ones. The hydrostatic approximation breaks down when the horizontal length scales of the phenomena in consideration become comparable to the vertical length scales [73]. Therefore, non-hydrostatic effects tend to be localized and this forms our motivation for developing a coupled NHS-HS model capable of treating different regions of a domain to be non-hydrostatic and hydrostatic by solving the appropriate equations with the appropriate solvers at the appropriate physical locations and times.

Since we have developed solvers for both the non-hydrostatic and hydrostatic ocean equations (as described in 2.1), we could imagine splitting our domain into subdomains and employing the requisite solver for each subdomain. However, it is not obvious how the subdomains would be coupled, and devising an efficient strategy to facilitate optimal communication between the NHS and HS subdomains is crucial to this coupled modeling scheme. Our numerical research questions include: What are the dynamical regimes and domain properties for which multi-dynamics (NHS and HS) solvers would be most efficient? Can HDG numerical schemes be developed

such that different dynamics occur within the same solver? Are there advantages for HDG to achieve this multi-dynamics capability? How could the NHS and HS domains be connected efficiently and accurately? How could the NHS and HS cell types be modified during the simulation? One could add several other related questions to this list. In what follows, we will address several of them.

### 3.1.1 Preliminary subdomain coupling ideas

One possible approach could be to employ an upwind-Dirichlet coupling between the NHS and HS subdomains. In the degenerate case of just two subdomains in our full computational domain, we would solve the "upwind" subdomain with an open boundary condition at the boundary that coincides with the other subdomain and supply the computed values at the boundary to the "downstream" subdomain through a Dirichlet boundary condition (as shown in Fig.3-2). However, this method is unlikely to be robust for a few reasons. Barring the simple advection-dominated problems, it would be difficult to identify the upstream subdomains. Additionally, this method would almost entirely decouple the state variables in the different subdomains.

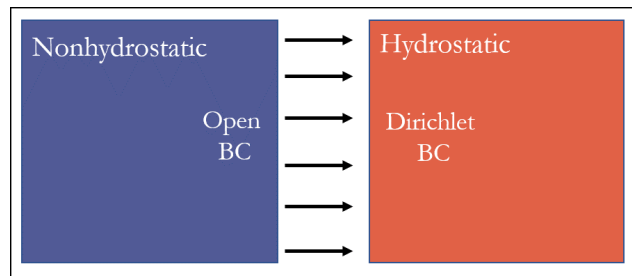


Figure 3-2: Schematic of an upwind Dirichlet approach to coupling the non-hydrostatic and hydrostatic subdomains

Another possible approach would be to employ a Schwarz method [36, 98] to couple the different subdomains. Here, we would define our subdomains such that they include overlapping regions and then solve each subdomain completely independently (as shown in Fig.3-3). Following this, we would perform iterations within each timestep wherein we re-solve the problem on each subdomain with boundary conditions obtained from the solutions in the neighbouring subdomains until con-



vergence is attained. Although this method might facilitate better communication between subdomains, it introduces a possibility of convergence issues and an increased computational cost associated with the extended domains and iterations within each timestep.

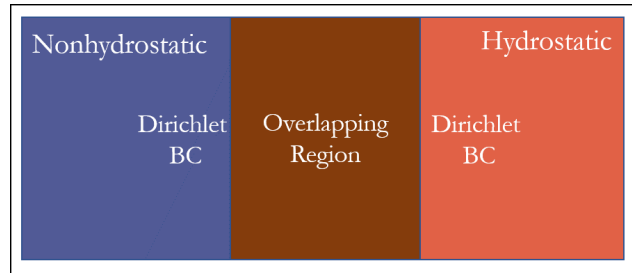


Figure 3-3: Schematic of a domain decomposition approach to coupling the non-hydrostatic and hydrostatic subdomains

### 3.1.2 Novel Projection method-based coupling of multi-dynamics subdomains

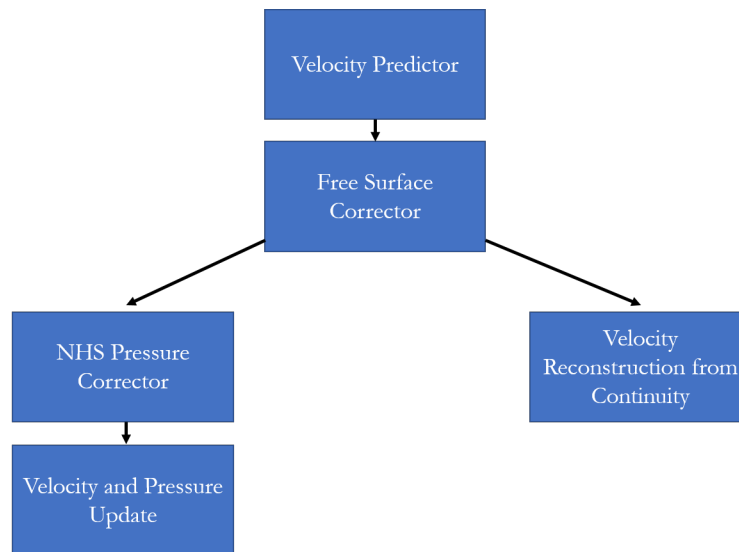


Figure 3-4: Summary of projection method steps involved in solving the non-hydrostatic (left) and hydrostatic (right) ocean equations

Figure 3-4 summarizes the steps involved in the HDG pressure-projection method for the non-hydrostatic and hydrostatic ocean equations. Recognizing that the solution process for the two models only differs in the latter steps, we devise a new

algorithm wherein the initial projection method steps are executed on the entire domain in a coupled manner, and then, the appropriate final steps are carried out on the NHS and HS subdomains. This way, we solve smaller, local pressure-Poisson equations for the non-hydrostatic pressure in the NHS subdomains, thereby making computational savings.

We describe a simple example to illustrate this algorithm. Consider a rectangular domain where we expect the flow to be hydrostatic towards the right and non-hydrostatic towards the left, as shown in Fig.3-5. The domain is split into two at  $x = x_{split}$  and the left subdomain is labelled to be NHS and the right to be HS. At each timestep, the intermediate values from the projection method are transferred to the respective subdomains where the dynamic-appropriate steps are followed to compute the final velocities and pressure. The computed solutions are then returned to the full domain for the next timestep.

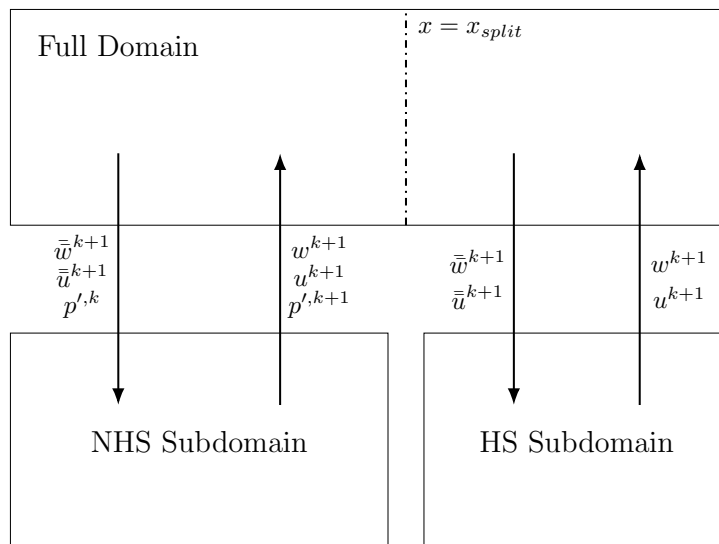


Figure 3-5: Schematic illustrating a split domain with an NHS subdomain on the left and an HS subdomain on the right. The intermediate solutions are transferred to the subdomains where the appropriate equations are solved and the final velocities and pressure are returned to the full domain.

Overall, at each time step, we execute the steps listed in Algorithm 1.

---

**Algorithm 1** Projection method-based coupling algorithm

---

- 1: Compute first velocity predictors  $(\bar{u}^{k+1}, \bar{w}^{k+1})$  in the full domain
  - 2: Compute free-surface corrector  $\delta\eta^{k+1}$  in the full domain
  - 3: Compute second velocity predictors  $(\bar{\bar{u}}^{k+1}, \bar{\bar{w}}^{k+1})$  and free-surface elevation  $\eta^{k+1}$
  - 4: Then, for each subdomain
  - 5: **if** NHS subdomain **then**
  - 6:     Transfer  $(\bar{\bar{u}}^{k+1}, \bar{\bar{w}}^{k+1})$  and  $p'^k$  to subdomain
  - 7:     Solve local pressure-Poisson equation to compute  $p'^{k+1}$  and  $(\underline{u}^{k+1}, \underline{w}^{k+1})$ .
  - 8:     Transfer  $\underline{u}^{k+1}$ ,  $\underline{w}^{k+1}$  and  $p'^{k+1}$  to the full domain
  - 9: **else**
  - 10:    Set non-hydrostatic pressure to zero -  $p'^{k+1} = 0$
  - 11:    Set final horizontal velocities as  $\underline{u}^{k+1} = \bar{\bar{u}}^{k+1}$
  - 12:    Reconstruct final vertical velocities  $\underline{w}^{k+1}$  from the continuity equation
  - 13:    Transfer  $\underline{u}^{k+1}$ ,  $\underline{w}^{k+1}$  and  $p'^{k+1}$  to the full domain
  - 14: **end if**
- 

It is important to note that to solve the local pressure-Poisson problems in the NHS subdomains, we need to specify boundary conditions for  $\delta p'$  along the newly formed internal boundaries. We can choose from a few reasonable options here and it is not obvious which would be the optimal choice. The possible choices include,

1. Homogeneous Dirichlet boundary condition -  $\delta p'^{k+1} = 0$

This would be an appropriate boundary condition if the internal boundary is well within a hydrostatic region of the domain

2. Imposing the previous timestep data -  $\delta p'^{k+1} = \delta p'^k$

This amounts to assuming that the divergence of the velocity predictor has not changed  $\nabla \cdot \bar{\bar{\mathbf{u}}}^{k+1} \approx \nabla \cdot \bar{\bar{\mathbf{u}}}^k$ , and therefore would be valid if the flow near the boundary is almost steady.

3. Homogeneous Neumann boundary condition -  $\partial\delta p'^{k+1}/\partial n = 0$

This boundary condition allows for a larger degree of freedom for the values  $\delta p'$  and could be used when we have little information about the flow near the boundary (similar to open boundary conditions).

We note that these boundary conditions might reduce to the same boundary condition when considering a problem with static subdomains and hydrostatic initial conditions.

## 3.2 New numerical non-hydrostatic parameters

Non-hydrostatic effects, such as nonlinear internal waves, are often localized and associated with small horizontal length scales [110, 10]. The accuracy of models representing many other localized ocean wave effects would benefit from some local non-hydrostatic treatment [47, 46, 27, 28, 50, 51], at least for including wave-breaking effects. Therefore, it would be useful to have a method to identify regions of our domain exhibiting NHS behaviour so that the NHS solvers can be employed appropriately locally in space and time, where and when needed.

The hydrostatic approximation can be thought of as a thin-fluid assumption and we can expect to require that

$$w \ll u \quad \text{and} \quad h \ll L \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \ll \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \quad (3.1)$$

where  $L$  and  $h$  are the horizontal and vertical length scales of the motions, and  $u$  and  $w$  are the horizontal and vertical velocities. In [73], the authors present the following non-dimensional non-hydrostatic parameter to quantify NHS behaviour

$$n = \frac{u^2}{L^2 N^2} = \frac{\gamma^2}{R_i} \ll 1 \implies \text{Hydrostatic} \quad (3.2)$$

where  $N^2 = -(g/\rho_0)(\partial\rho/\partial z)$  is the Brunt-Väisälä frequency,  $\gamma = h/L$  is the aspect ratio and  $R_i = N^2 h^2 / u^2$  is the Richardson number. This parameter accounts for the fact that the hydrostatic approximation would be valid even for small aspect-ratio problems if the stratification is strong enough ( $R_i \gg 1$ ).

Looking at the pressure-Poisson equation (from Sec.2.2) that determines the NHS pressure field, we see that the forcing function is a scaled divergence of the first velocity predictors

$$\nabla_{xy}^2 \delta p'^{k+1} + \nabla_z^2 \delta p'^{k+1} = \frac{\nabla_{xy} \cdot \bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1}}{a\Delta t} + \frac{\nabla_z \cdot \bar{\underline{w}}^{k+1}}{a\Delta t} \quad (3.3)$$

Further, we know that the Green's function of the Laplace operator rapidly decays

and we can thereby expect a correlation between domain regions with non-zero values of forcing and non-zero values of NHS pressure corrector. Therefore, we construct a new numerical non-hydrostatic parameter as

$$\alpha = \frac{\nabla_{xy} \cdot \bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1}}{a\Delta t} + \frac{\nabla_z \cdot \bar{\underline{w}}^{k+1}}{a\Delta t} \quad (3.4)$$

and expect it can track regions of non-zero pressure corrector values  $\delta p'$ .

This new parameter could be used to devise an adaptive multi-dynamics algorithm where the subdomains are evolved dynamically over time. Moreover, since we solve for both the state variables and the derivatives in the HDG framework, we can readily compute this numerical non-hydrostatic parameter.



# Chapter 4

## Numerical Investigation

In this chapter, we verify some of the claims made in the literature about the computational bottleneck of NHS models and then present various results from a 2D first-implementation of the proposed multi-dynamics model. Firstly, we introduce an idealized problem that will serve as the test case for all the following numerical experiments. Our in-house, parallelized, non-hydrostatic C++ HDG code [33] is profiled to demonstrate that the pressure-Poisson equation solved for the NHS pressure component is indeed the computational bottleneck. Following this, we present qualitative validation of the C++ HDG code against another finite-volume NHS solver. The multi-dynamics model is implemented and compared with standard NHS simulations to realize computational savings and evaluate accuracy. Finally, we look at an NHS parameter that can serve as a tool to predict non-hydrostatic behaviour and facilitate extension to an adaptive multi-dynamics model.

### 4.1 Rayleigh-Taylor Instability-Driven Striations

Gravity-driven instabilities seen at interfaces between fluids of different densities are referred to as Rayleigh-Taylor (RT) instabilities. These instabilities are observed in processes that span a wide range of length scales ranging from supernova explosions [92] to turbulence mixing [8, 112]. RT instabilities have garnered a lot of attention over the years and there have been many investigations into the linear stability analysis

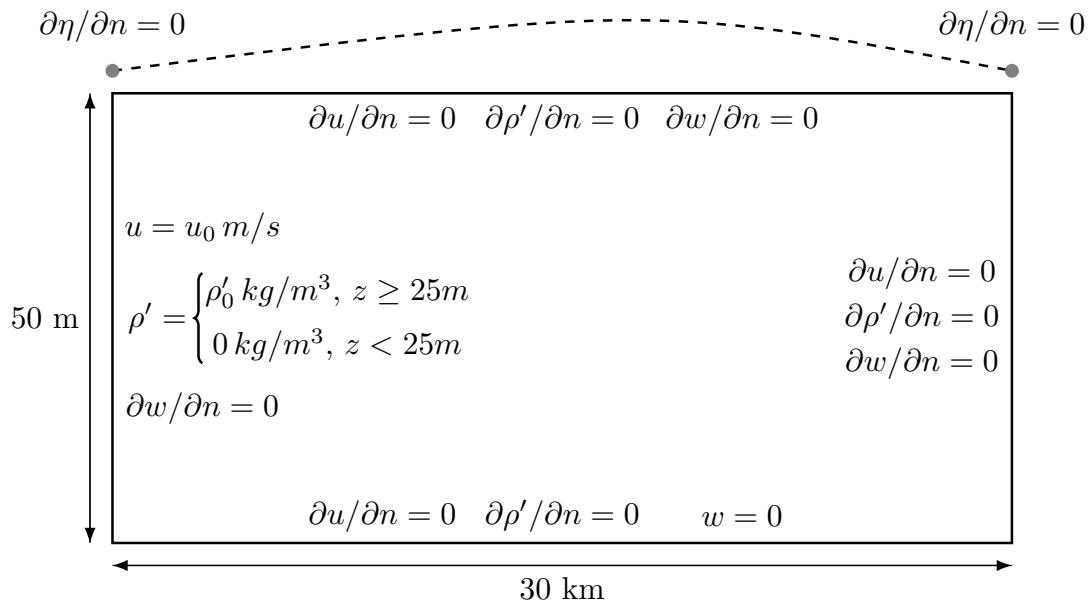


Figure 4-1: Schematic of the domain and boundary conditions considered for the Rayleigh-Taylor instability-driven striations test case. Here,  $u_0$  denotes the background velocity, and  $\rho'_0$  denotes the difference in density between the initial domain density and the density of the cooler water being dragged into the domain. The vertical momentum diffusivity is chosen to be  $0.008 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$  and the vertical tracer diffusivity is set to  $0.004 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$  while the horizontal momentum and tracer diffusivities are set to  $100 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$

[53, 113], nonlinear [25] stability analysis and RT instabilities in the context of ocean dynamics [22, 109, 21, 81].

We have also observed several hydrostatic traces of such instabilities in several of our MSEAS [75] PE simulations [40, 42, 1].

We construct an idealized test case featuring Rayleigh-Taylor instability-driven striations which we will use for all the following numerical experiments. We consider a two-dimensional domain of depth 50 metres and length 30 kilometres with a constant background velocity  $u_0$ . We model colder water being pulled into the domain through the left boundary by imposing an appropriate density distribution at the left boundary. Figure 4-1 illustrates the parameters used to model this problem along with the relevant boundary conditions and dimensions. As the denser water is advected into the domain, the opposing buoyancy and gravitational forces interact



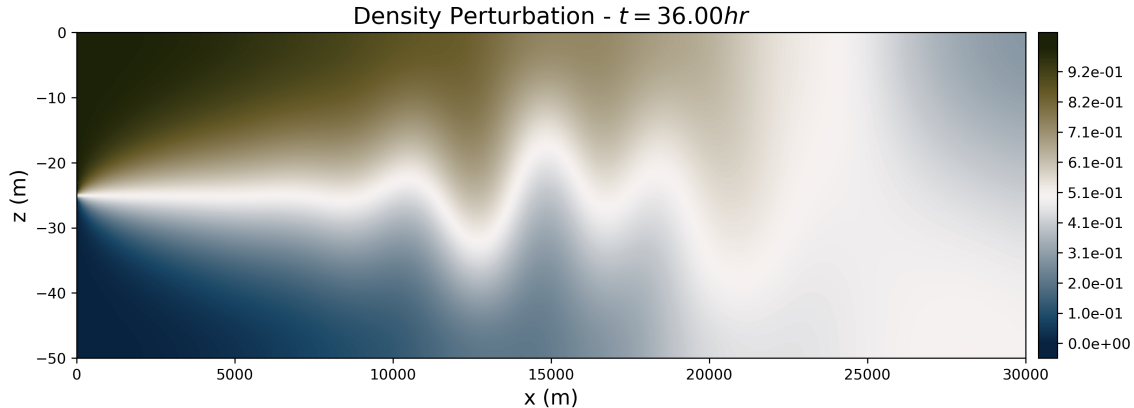


Figure 4-2: Density perturbation  $\rho'$  profile at  $t = 36 \text{ hr}$  illustrating the Rayleigh-Taylor instability-driven striations that develop as the denser water is pulled into the domain. These plots correspond to a background velocity of  $u_0 = 0.3 \text{ m/s}$  and a density perturbation of  $\rho'_0 = 1 \text{ kg/m}^3$ .

with each other leading to Rayleigh-Taylor instability-driven striations as shown in Fig.4-2.

## 4.2 Validation with NHS Finite Volume Code

Before we begin our numerical investigations, we verify the HDG non-hydrostatic solver against our benchmarked in-house finite-volume method (FVM) solver [105, 62]. The FVM solver has non-hydrostatic capabilities but unlike the HDG solver, it does not accommodate a free-surface (rigid-lid approximation). We simulate the RTI problem described in the previous section using the two solvers on a  $200 \times 10$  grid with a polynomial order of  $p = 3$  and compare the solutions.

Figure 4-3 compares the velocities and density perturbation produced by the HDG and finite-volume codes at  $t = \{12 \text{ hr}, 24 \text{ hr}\}$ . We see that the two solutions show good agreement at  $t = 12 \text{ hr}$  in terms of the time scales of the flow and magnitudes of each state variable. However, at  $t = 24 \text{ hr}$ , although the primary features of the flow look similar, we see that the HDG solution shows density perturbation waves being formed that aren't captured by the finite-volume code and this can be attributed to the different free-surface models used by the two solvers. We repeat this experiment while imposing a wind shear of  $\partial u / \partial y = 5 \text{ dyn/cm}^2$  along the top boundary and see

that once again, the two solvers produce qualitatively similar solutions as shown in Fig.4-4.

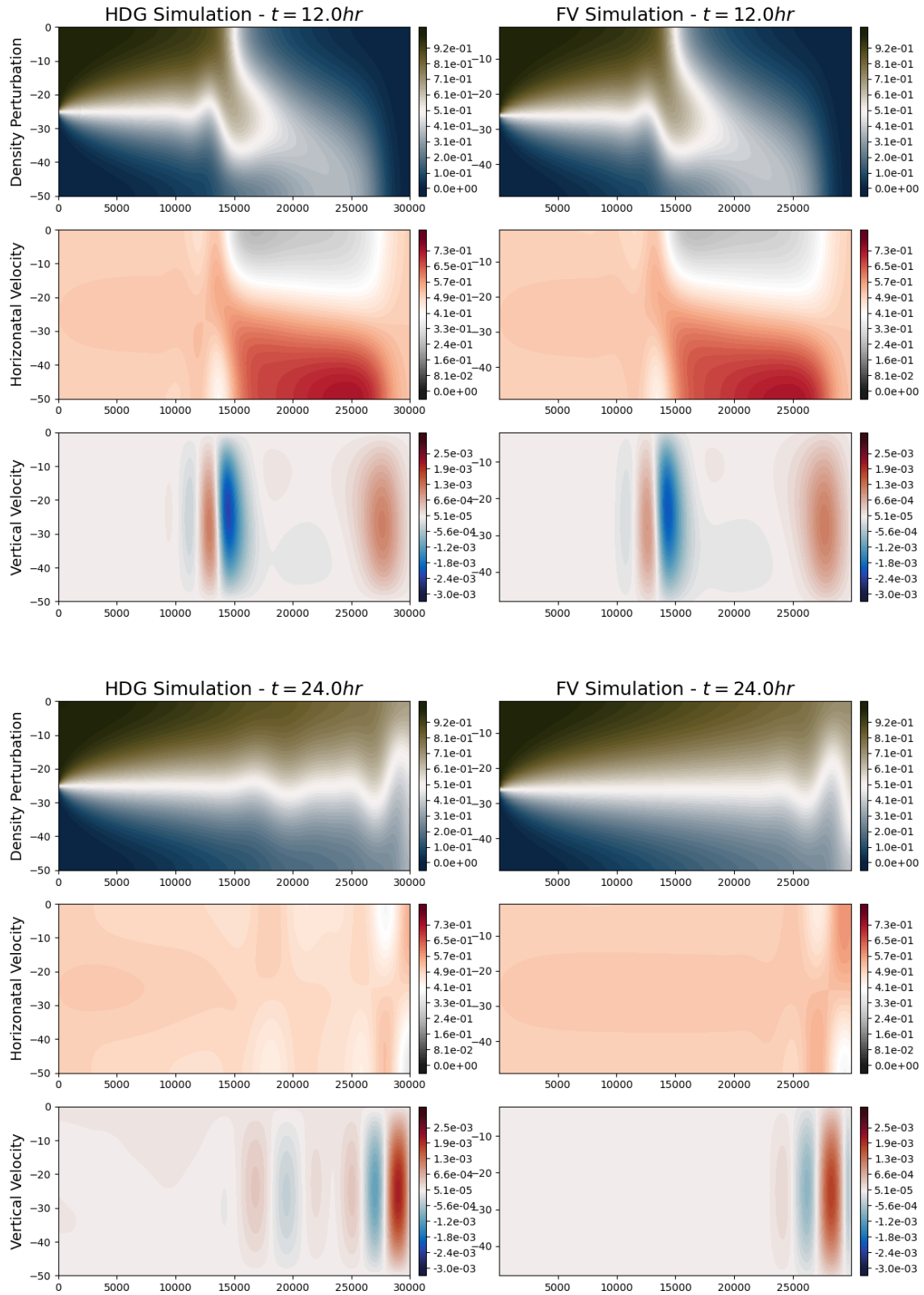


Figure 4-3: Comparison of the density perturbation and velocities between the FVM and HDG solutions to the RTI test case without wind forcing at  $t = \{12\text{ hr}, 24\text{ hr}\}$

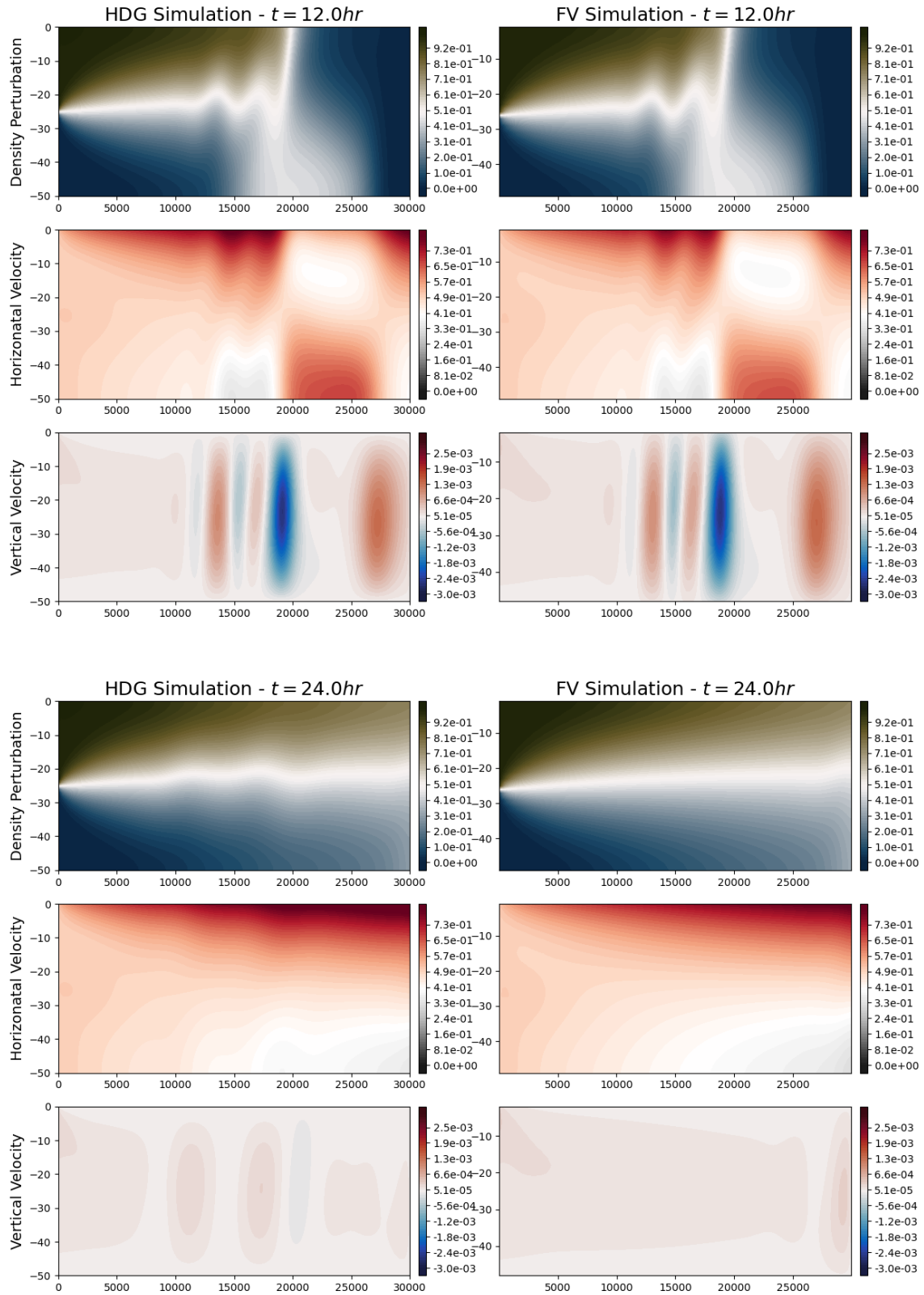


Figure 4-4: Comparison of the density perturbation and velocities between the FVM and HDG solutions to the RTI test case with wind forcing at  $t = \{12\text{hr}, 24\text{hr}\}$

## 4.3 Code Profiling Results

In order to understand the performance and computational bottlenecks within our C++ HDG ocean solver, we perform a series of timing analyses, and the results are presented in this section. As described in Section 2.2, for each timestep of a non-hydrostatic simulation, the code assembles and solves four systems of equations as shown below in Algorithm 2.

---

**Algorithm 2** Equations solved in the projection method at each timestep

---

- 1: Solve momentum equations to compute first velocity predictors
  - 2: Solve free-surface evolution equation to compute the free-surface corrector
  - 3: Solve the pressure-Poisson equation to compute the NHS pressure component
  - 4: Solve the tracer evolution equation to compute the density perturbation
- 

Figure 4-5 shows the statistics generated from a timing analysis for a simulation of our RTI-induced striations test case ( $u_0 = 0.5 \text{ m/s}$  and  $\rho'_0 = 1 \text{ kg/m}^3$ ). We see that for various choices of grid resolution and solutions orders, computing the solution to the pressure-Poisson equation (PPE) accounts for about 50% of the total compute time. The globally coupled nature of elliptic PDEs makes them expensive to solve. Furthermore, for field-scale ocean applications, the PPE is poorly conditioned because the vertical second derivative terms are up to two orders of magnitude larger than the horizontal second derivative terms [35, 73]. The timing analyses also show that an increase in vertical resolution further increases the fraction of computational cost spent on the pressure corrector step (Fig.4-6 (left)). We also see that for lower-order solutions, the pressure corrector step can account for up to 70% of the total computational workload (Fig.4-6 (right)).

Table 4.1 summarizes the condition number of each linear system and the number of iterations required by different iterative schemes to solve the system. The condition number of the PPE linear system and the iteration requirement is about two orders of magnitude greater than that of the other linear systems. We also see that the conjugate gradient solver proves to be the most efficient and this is consistent with what we expect given that the linear system arising from the HDG discretization is symmetric positive definite (SPD).

	Condition Number	Iteration Count		
		CG	BiCGStab	GMRES
Velocity Predictor	20	50	40	50
Free-surface Corrector	100	100	50	100
Pressure Corrector	40000	1000	900	10000
Tracer Evolution	30	50	40	50
Total Wall Clock Time		6.1s	9.1s	43.2s

Table 4.1: Summary of condition number and iteration count with different solvers for each projection method step. The pressure corrector system is poorly conditioned and requires far more iterations until convergence than the other systems. The conjugate gradient solver performs best in terms of wall-clock time.

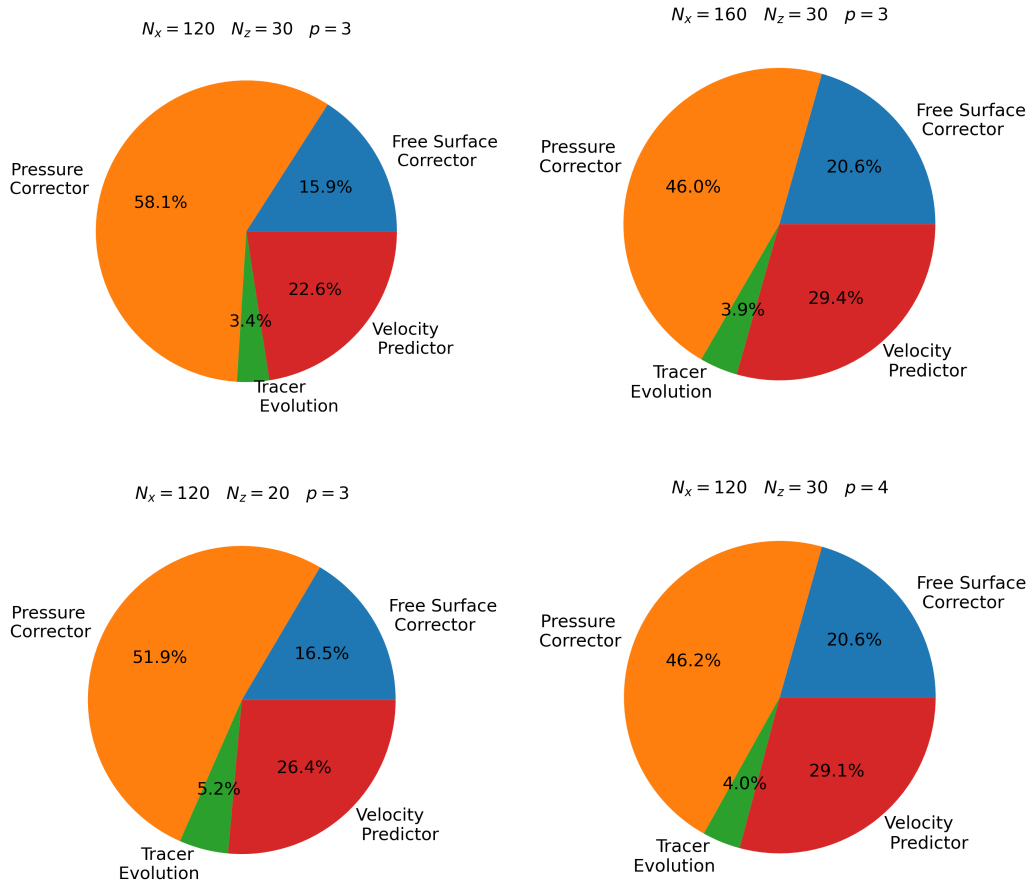


Figure 4-5: Distribution of computational cost associated with the different solutions steps involved within each timestep of a non-hydrostatic simulation. We see that the pressure corrector step accounts for about 50% of the computational budget across various resolutions and solution orders. The timing analyses are conducted on simulations of the RTI-induced striations test case.

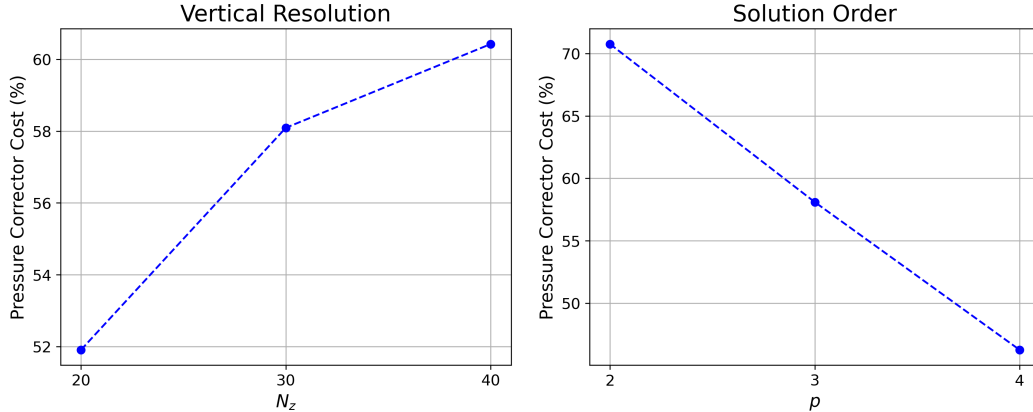


Figure 4-6: The fraction of the total computational budget consumed by the pressure corrector step as a function of vertical resolution and solution order. The timing analyses are conducted on simulations of the RTI-induced striations test case.

## 4.4 Split Domain Results

We have defined our test problem and empirically demonstrated that the pressure-Poisson equation for the NHS pressure is our solver’s computational bottleneck. Now, we implement our multi-dynamics model on a simple test case and evaluate the model’s accuracy and computational savings. For the following simulations, we consider the density difference between the initial domain density and the incoming water from the left boundary to be  $\rho'_0 = 2 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^3$ . This increased density anomaly causes the flow to quickly re-stratify such that the regions towards the outflow boundary of the domain are almost hydrostatic. We then consider a split-domain setup where the domain is divided into two subdomains at  $x_{split} = 3L/4 = 22.5 \text{ km}$ . A homogeneous boundary condition for the NHS pressure corrector ( $\delta p' = 0$ ) is imposed along the subdomain dividing boundary for each of the following simulations. Note that the errors in the following analyses are calculated and compared in the  $L_2$ -norm as

$$L_2 \text{ Error}(u_{ref}, u) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_K \|u_{ref} - u\|^2 dK}{\sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_K \|u_{ref}\|^2 dK}} \quad (4.1)$$

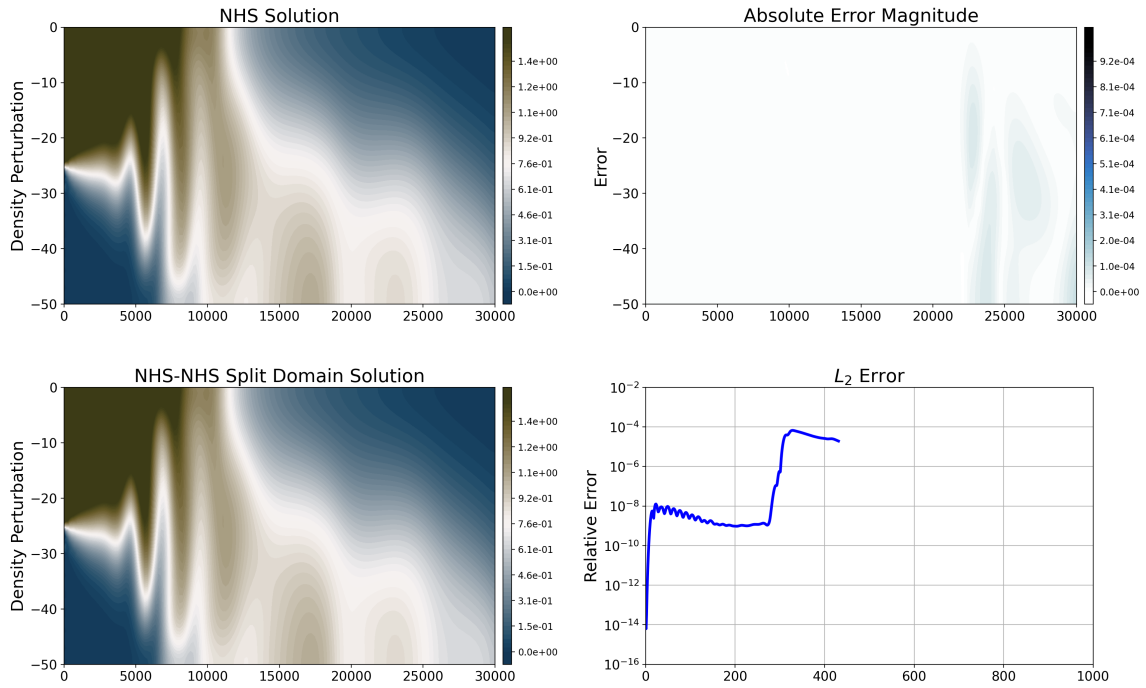
## Case 1: NHS-NHS Split Domain

For our first investigation, we employ a split-domain solver comprising of NHS solvers for both subdomains and compare the resulting solution to the standard NHS solution. In this case, the only error we have introduced in the split-domain model is due to the homogeneous boundary condition we impose along  $x = x_{split}$  for the NHS pressure corrector. Therefore, we expect the error in the split-domain solution compared to the standard NHS solution to be minimal.

Figure 4-7 and 4-8 show the density perturbation and NHS pressure profiles at  $t = 12\text{ hr}$  and  $t = 24\text{ hr}$ , respectively. As expected, throughout the simulation, we see that the relative error is below 0.01% for the density perturbation and below 1% for the NHS pressure. The errors in velocity were also computed and they were limited to 0.1% for the horizontal velocity and to 0.1% for the vertical velocities. Looking at the absolute error plots, we see that the errors seem to be mostly localized to  $x_{split} < x < L$ . We also note that the jump in error around timestep number 300 indicates the advection flow reaching the subdomain dividing boundary and that the oscillatory nature of the NHS pressure error curves is due to its wave train-like profile as seen in Fig.4-8.



NHS Solution vs NHS-NHS Split Domain Solution,  $t=12.0$  hr



NHS Solution vs NHS-NHS Split Domain Solution,  $t=24.0$  hr

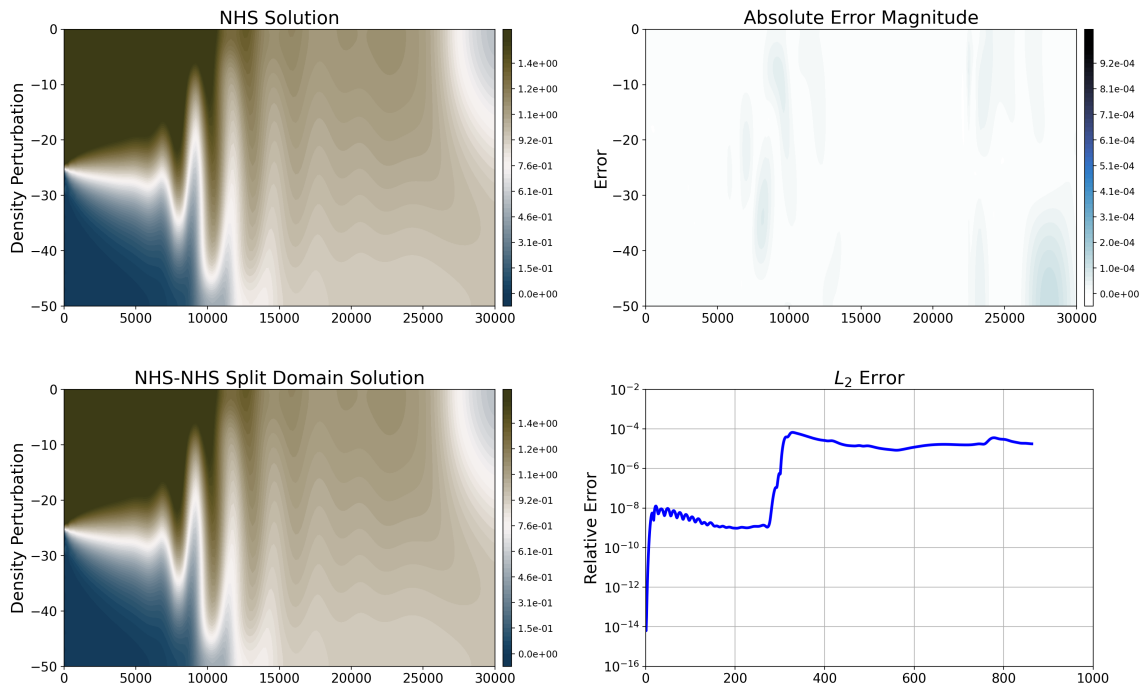


Figure 4-7: Comparison of the density perturbation between a split-domain NHS-NHS solver ( $x_{split} = 3L/4 = 22.5$  km) and a standard NHS solver at  $t = \{12$  hr,  $24$  hr $\}$ . The non-hydrostatic pressure corrector is set to  $\delta p' = 0$  along the dividing boundary and the background velocity and density anomaly are  $u_0 = 0.5$  m/s and  $\rho'_o = 2$  kg/m<sup>3</sup>.

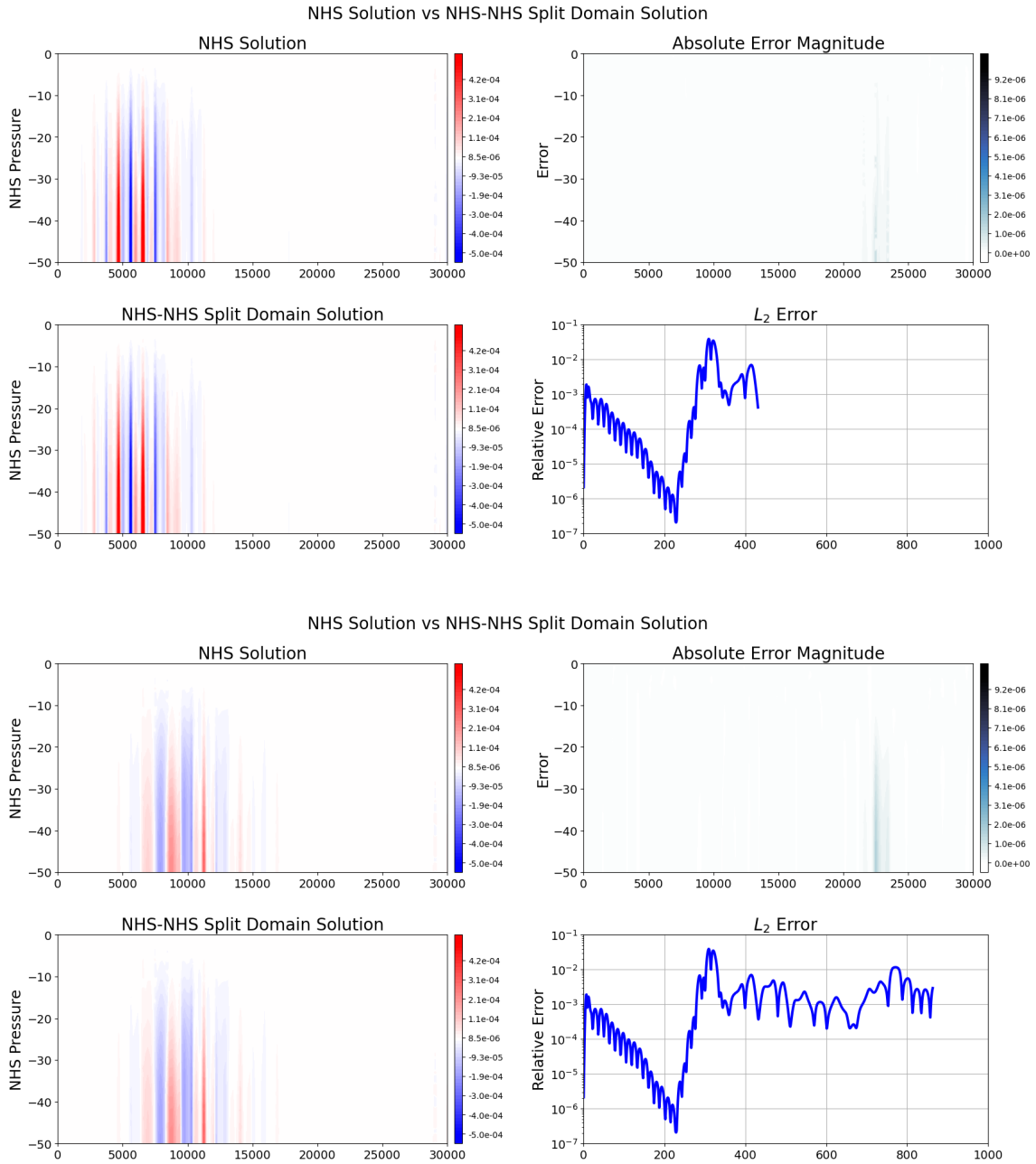


Figure 4-8: Comparison of the NHS pressure between a split-domain NHS-NHS solver ( $x_{split} = 3L/4 = 22.5 \text{ km}$ ) and a standard NHS solver at  $t = \{12 \text{ hr}, 24 \text{ hr}\}$ . The non-hydrostatic pressure corrector is set to  $\delta p' = 0$  along the dividing boundary and the background velocity and density anomaly are  $u_0 = 0.5 \text{ m/s}$  and  $\rho'_0 = 2 \text{ kg/m}^3$ .

## Case 2: NHS-HS Split Domain

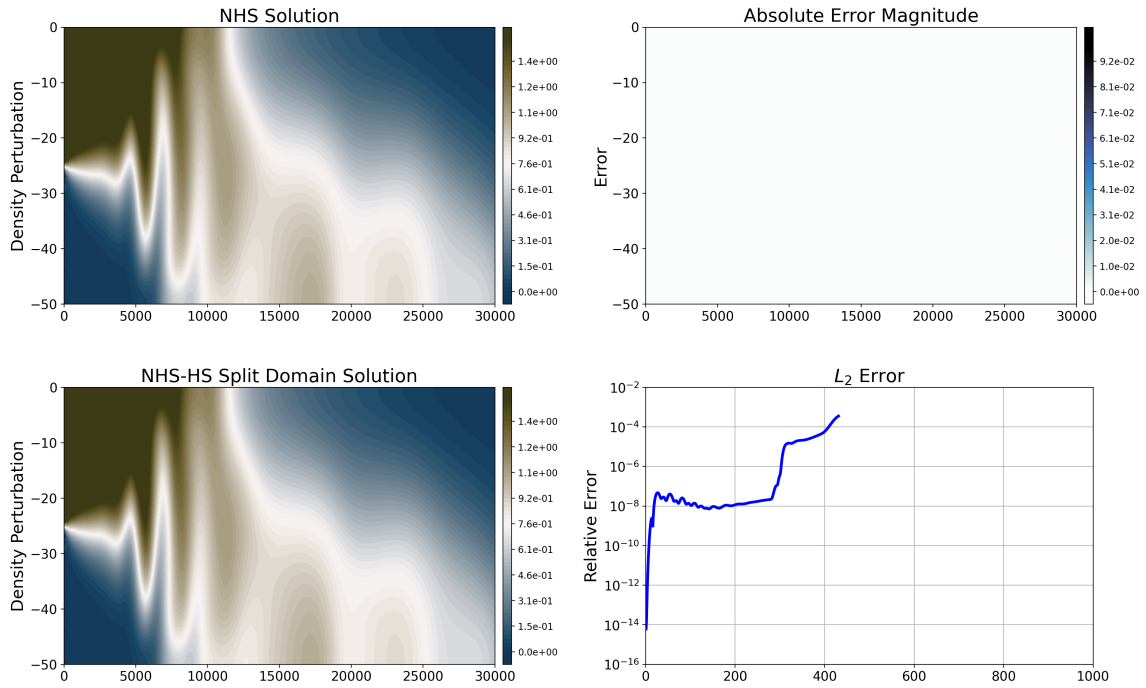
In this case, we use an NHS solver for the left subdomain ( $0 < x < x_{split}$ ) and an HS solver for the right subdomain ( $x_{split} < x < L$ ) and compare the resulting solution to the standard NHS solution. We impose a homogeneous boundary condition for the pressure corrector  $\delta p' = 0$  along  $x = x_{split}$  in the NHS subdomain. In addition to the error we introduced in case 1, we have introduced a hydrostatic approximation for the flow in the right subdomain.

Figure 4-9-4-10 show the density perturbation and NHS pressure profiles at  $t = 12 \text{ hr}$  and  $t = 24 \text{ hr}$  along with the absolute errors incurred by the split-domain solver. We see that although the relative error has now increased, it is restricted to about 1% for the density perturbation and to 10% for the NHS pressure. Similarly, we find that the relative error of the horizontal velocity is less than 1% and that of the vertical velocity is less than 10%. Furthermore, the primary flow features seem to be captured, and we see that the errors remain bounded at late times. Unlike the NHS-NHS split domain solver, significant errors are seen to propagate upstream of the domain. A timing analysis showed that the split-domain NHS-HS solver produced a computational saving of about 20% compared to the standard NHS solver. We note that the computational savings depend on how much of the domain exhibits NHS behaviour and for a more realistic large-scale problem with localized NHS effects, we can expect even greater computational savings.

We now repeat this simulation to investigate the effects of boundary condition choice by imposing different boundary conditions along the  $x = x_{split}$  boundary within the NHS subdomain. Figure 4-11 illustrates the resulting error curves and we do not see a significant difference between the three cases. Since we have static subdomains initialized to a stratified field, we see that imposing the homogeneous Dirichlet condition  $\delta p'^{k+1} = 0$  and the previous timestep value condition  $\delta p'^{k+1} = \delta p'^k$  results in the exact same solution. We note that it would be more interesting and informative to compare these boundary conditions in the context of an adaptive version of this algorithm where the subdomains are evolved in time as the simulation progresses such

that subdomains can switch between the NHS and HS models.

NHS Solution vs NHS-HS Split Domain Solution,  $t=12.0$  hr



NHS Solution vs NHS-HS Split Domain Solution,  $t=24.0$  hr

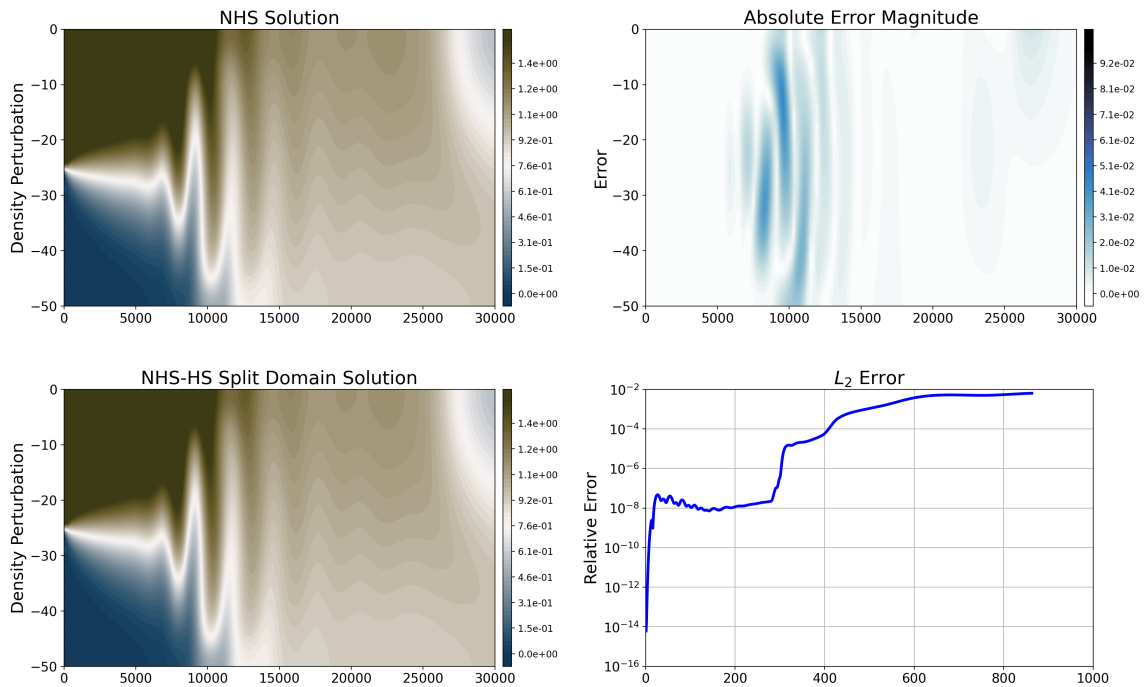


Figure 4-9: Comparison of the density perturbation between a split-domain NHS-HS solver ( $x_{split} = 3L/4 = 22.5$  km) and a standard NHS solver at  $t = \{12$  hr,  $24$  hr $\}$ . The non-hydrostatic pressure corrector is set to  $\delta p' = 0$  along the dividing boundary and the background velocity and density anomaly are  $u_0 = 0.5$  m/s and  $\rho'_o = 2$  kg/m $^3$ .

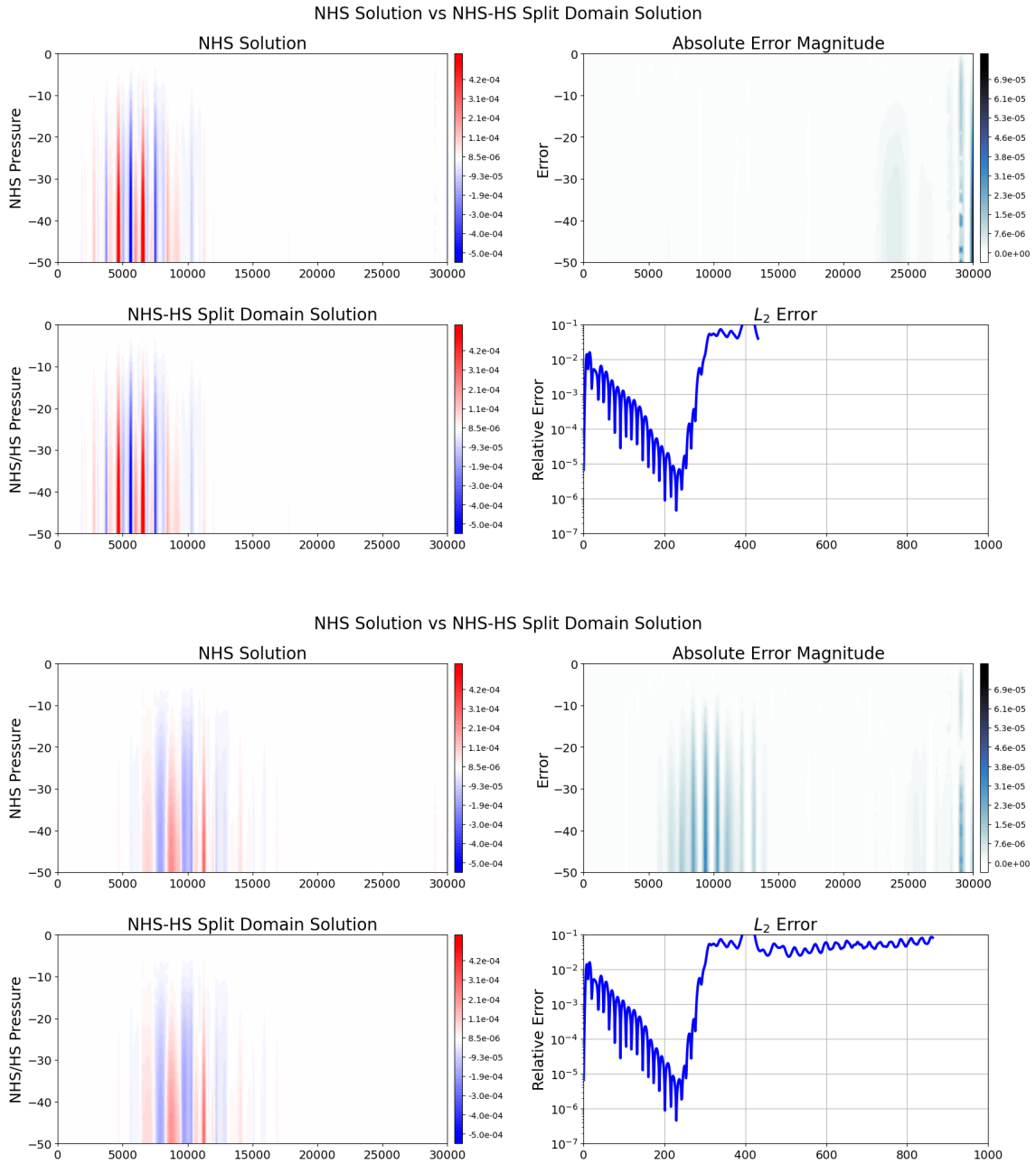


Figure 4-10: Comparison of the NHS pressure between a split-domain NHS-HS solver ( $x_{split} = 3L/4 = 22.5 \text{ km}$ ) and a standard NHS solver at  $t = \{12 \text{ hr}, 24 \text{ hr}\}$ . The non-hydrostatic pressure corrector is set to  $\delta p' = 0$  along the dividing boundary and the background velocity and density anomaly are  $u_0 = 0.5 \text{ m/s}$  and  $\rho'_o = 2 \text{ kg/m}^3$ .

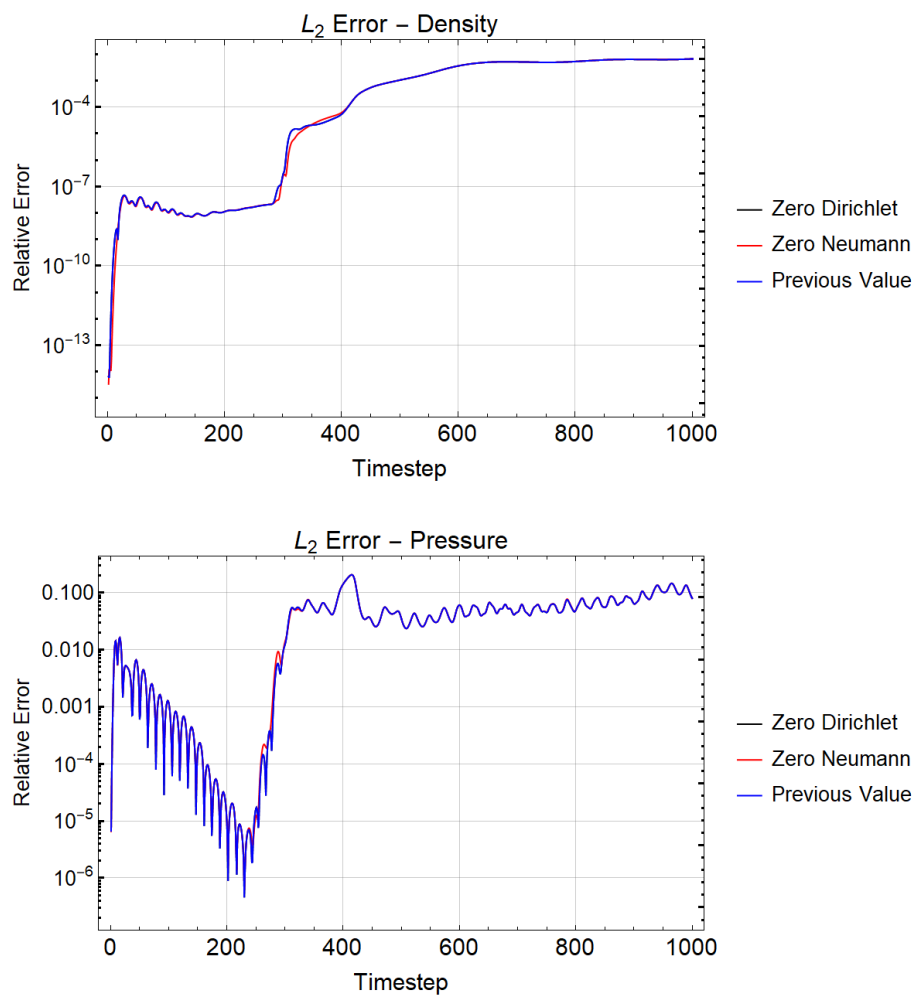


Figure 4-11: Comparison of the errors corresponding to the three boundary condition choices discussed in Section 3.1.2 for the density perturbation (top) and non-hydrostatic pressure (bottom). We note that the black and blue lines, corresponding to the homogeneous Dirichlet and previous timestep value boundary conditions, coincide here.

## 4.5 NHS Parameters

As we have discussed in the previous chapter, there are a few non-dimensional numbers that can potentially be used to predict non-hydrostatic behaviour. Here, we look at the numerical non-hydrostatic parameter defined as,

$$\alpha = \frac{\nabla_{xy} \cdot \bar{\underline{u}}^{k+1}}{a\Delta t} + \frac{\nabla_z \cdot \bar{\underline{w}}^{k+1}}{a\Delta t} \quad (4.2)$$

In Fig.4-12, we compare the NHS parameter  $\alpha$  (scaled divergence of the velocity predictor) with the NHS pressure corrector  $\delta p'$ . We see that the NHS parameter is able to track domain regions with non-zero NHS pressure corrector values well throughout the simulation. Therefore, we can make use of this parameter to develop an adaptive algorithm as shown in Algorithm 3. Consider a domain split into multiple subdomains and initially tagged to be either non-hydrostatic or hydrostatic.

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**Algorithm 3** Adaptive Multi-dynamics Model

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- 1: At each timestep, for each subdomain,
  - 2: **if** Non-hydrostatic subdomain **then**
  - 3:     **if**  $p' < \text{tolerance}$  and  $\alpha < \text{tolerance}$  **then**
  - 4:         Switch subdomain tag to hydrostatic
  - 5:     **end if**
  - 6: **else**
  - 7:     **if**  $\alpha > \text{tolerance}$  **then**
  - 8:         Switch subdomain tag to non-hydrostatic
  - 9:     **end if**
  - 10: **end if**
- 

We can adjust the tolerance used as thresholds for transition between the NHS and HS models to choose between computational savings and accuracy. We are currently working on implementing this adaptive multi-dynamics model.



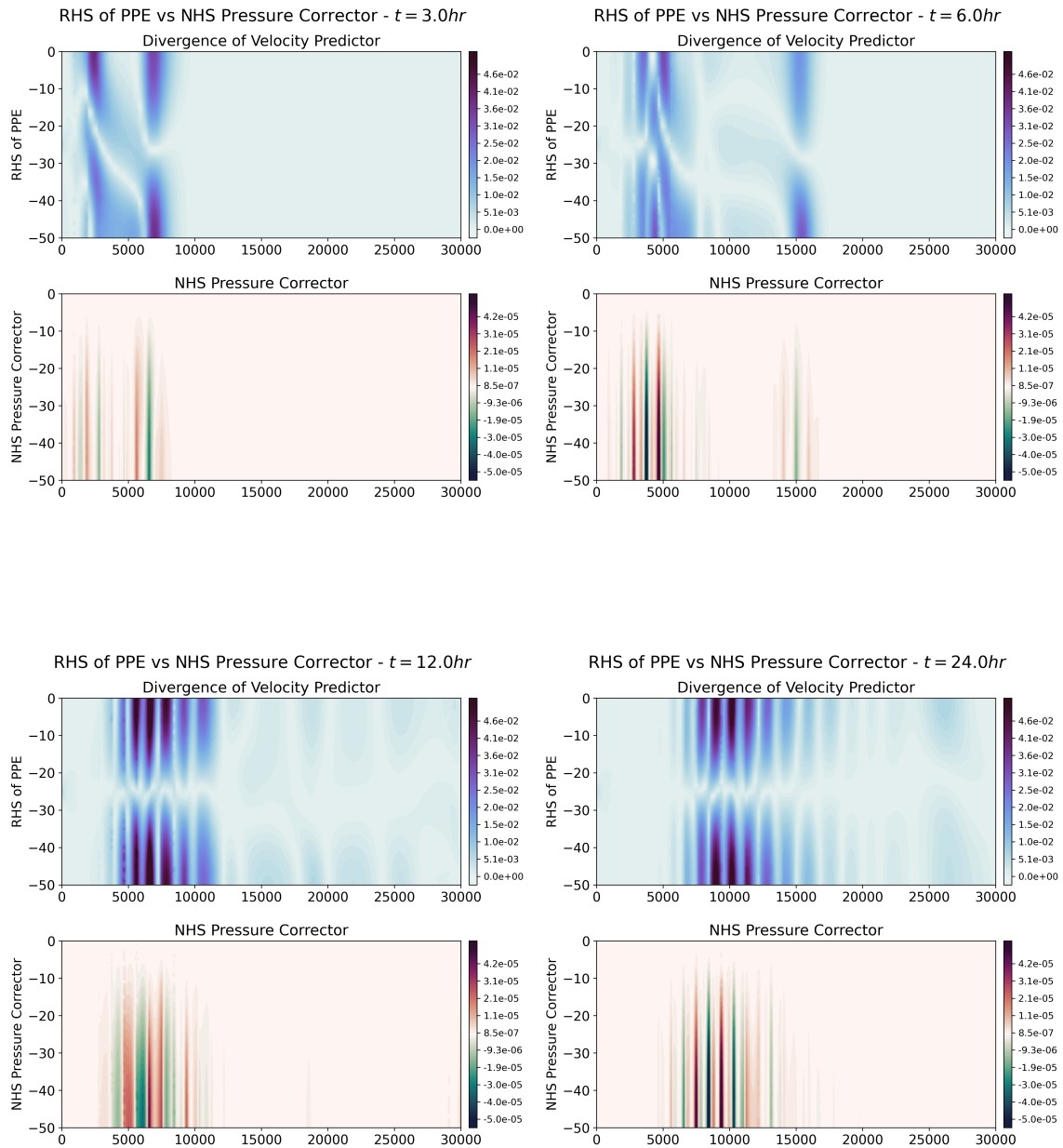


Figure 4-12: Plots of the non-hydrostatic pressure corrector and the divergence of the velocity predictor at  $t = \{3\text{ hr}, 6\text{ hr}, 12\text{ hr}, 24\text{ hr}\}$ . We see that the divergence of the velocity predictor can track the non-hydrostatic pressure corrector throughout the simulation.



# Chapter 5

## Conclusion and Future Work

This work presents a projection method-based multi-dynamics model for coupling the non-hydrostatic and hydrostatic ocean equations in the hybridizable discontinuous Galerkin [77] finite element method framework. The proposed model employs dynamics-appropriate models for different parts of the domain and therefore has the potential to optimally reduce the computational cost by resolving non-hydrostatic dynamics only where and when needed. We have detailed the implementation aspects associated with this model, emphasising possible boundary condition treatment. Timing analyses of our in-house, parallelized, C++ non-hydrostatic HDG solver [30, 33] are conducted to verify that computing the non-hydrostatic pressure is the computational bottleneck.

A first implementation of the multi-dynamics modeling system, with static subdomains, was developed. It was evaluated in the context of 2D idealized Rayleigh-Taylor instability-driven striations, inspired by ocean dynamics in multiple regions including the Mediterranean Sea (Alboran and Balearic Seas) and Gulf of Mexico. Simulation results were presented with discussions on accuracy evaluations and computational savings. We then discussed and obtained numerical parameters that could be used to quantify and anticipate non-hydrostatic behaviour within the domain locally. Our numerical experiments reveal that the divergence of the velocity predictor can be used to track regions with non-zero non-hydrostatic pressure.

We are working on an extension to this work where we devise an adaptive algo-

rithm that uses the proposed parameter to track non-hydrostatic behaviour to dynamically choose regions where the NHS model is needed as the simulation evolves. Integrating this multi-dynamics algorithm with adaptive mesh refinement schemes [32] in the HDG framework could prove to be an effective method to optimize NHS simulations.

Research in the direction of novel numerical schemes and modern-day computing tools is critical in the pursuit of capturing and understanding a broad range of non-hydrostatic ocean phenomena. One route could be incorporating reduced-order methods within our HDG ocean modelling framework to reduce the memory requirement. The discovery of effective preconditioners and novel solution methods for the linear systems arising from HDG discretization is another avenue we are interested in. In particular, we are looking at multigrid methods [9, 17, 68] as they offer the attractive possibility of solving linear systems at a mesh size-independent rate. More sophisticated parameterization of sub-grid processes would go a long way in enabling large-scale realistic ocean simulations. Present-day data-driven approaches and parallel computing with graphics processing units (GPUs) have gained a lot of attention recently and they could also prove useful in tackling the computational challenge posed by non-hydrostatic simulations.

Advances towards efficient NHS simulations would enhance the capabilities of our Multidisciplinary Simulation, Estimation and Assimilation Systems (MSEAS) [75, 41, 38, 39] ocean modelling to perform realistic simulations and forecasts across the world's oceans, several of which have localized non-hydrostatic dynamics [47, 46, 60, 64, 63, 40, 42]. Such localized effects are also often important for underwater sound propagation and computational ocean acoustics [93, 28, 5, 3, 4]. Their simulations may also benefit from reduced-order modeling [13, 14], uncertainty quantification [59, 58], and data assimilation and adaptive sampling [66, 57, 65, 61].

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