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High-order non-conforming discontinuous Galerkin methods for the acoustic conservation equations

Johannes Heinz¹  | Peter Munch² | Manfred Kaltenbacher³

¹Institute of Mechanics and Mechatronics, TU Wien, Vienna, Austria

²High-Performance Scientific Computing, University of Augsburg, Augsburg, Germany

³Institute of Fundamentals and Theory in Electrical Engineering (IGTE), TU Graz, Graz, Austria

Correspondence

Johannes Heinz, Institute of Mechanics and Mechatronics, TU Wien, Vienna, Austria.

Email: johannes.heinz@tuwien.ac.at

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Abstract

This work compares two Nitsche-type approaches to treat non-conforming triangulations for a high-order discontinuous Galerkin (DG) solver for the acoustic conservation equations. The first approach (point-to-point interpolation) uses inconsistent integration with quadrature points prescribed by a primary element. The second approach uses consistent integration by choosing quadratures depending on the intersection between non-conforming elements. In literature, some excellent properties regarding performance and ease of implementation are reported for point-to-point interpolation. However, we show that this approach can not safely be used for DG discretizations of the acoustic conservation equations since, in our setting, it yields spurious oscillations that lead to instabilities. This work presents a test case in that we can observe the instabilities and shows that consistent integration is required to maintain a stable method. Additionally, we provide a detailed analysis of the method with consistent integration. We show optimal spatial convergence rates globally and in each mesh region separately. The method is constructed such that it can natively treat overlaps between elements. Finally, we highlight the benefits of non-conforming discretizations in acoustic computations by a numerical test case with different fluids.

KEYWORDS

acoustic conservation equations, discontinuous Galerkin methods, high-order finite elements, Nitsche method, non-conforming interface, non-matching grids

1 | INTRODUCTION

The main benefit of non-conforming interfaces (NCIs) is the ability to handle arbitrary element connections. In acoustic simulations, we require different element sizes in different regions of a triangulation, for example, due to wave propagation through inhomogeneous media. NCIs can realize the jump in element sizes without the use of transition regions which usually contain strongly distorted elements.^{1,2} This way, it is possible to reduce degrees of freedom (DoFs) needed without introducing errors related to elements with bad quality.^{2,3} Additionally, algorithms that can handle NCIs can simplify mesh generation since it is possible to generate the grids in a modular way.¹

Overlapping elements further reduce the difficulties in mesh generation since they can be constructed without paying attention to adjacent regions at all. One famous example of this is the overset grid method;⁴ a structural mesh serves as the

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background mesh in which complex geometries can be embedded. This is done by overlaying the corresponding meshes and deleting the elements of the background mesh that completely overlap the embedded mesh.

Besides mentioned advantages of NCIs, some applications, like a rotating fan, require NCIs. To compute the aeroacoustic sound field, we need two mesh regions, one of which is rotating, see, for example, Reference 5. A conforming mesh at each time step is not feasible; using NCIs in such applications is the obvious solution. However, this requires the non-conforming interface to lie precisely on top of each other, which is only possible using curved elements, compare Reference 6. A slightly different approach is to use methods that can also handle element overlaps between the triangulations. This way, the fixed and rotating domain can still pick values for the fluxes at the overlapping boundaries, with the difference that these values are defined inside elements of the other triangulation.

There exist three different ways to handle non-conformities. The most common method in literature is the Mortar method, first introduced by Bernadi et al.⁷ The Mortar method is a projection-based method that typically uses Lagrange multipliers to enforce coupling; this requires additional DoFs at the interface. Coupling of the second order wave equation using Mortar methods has been successfully applied in Reference 3.

Another way to couple non-conforming meshes is through interpolation-based methods, such as INTERNODES (INTERpolation for NON-conforming DEcompositionS).⁸

Nitsche⁹ presented the idea of including Dirichlet boundary conditions (DBC) in the weak form. Methods using this idea are consequently named Nitsche-type methods. Discontinuous Galerkin (DG) schemes use this idea at all element boundaries already.¹⁰ Therefore, we believe that using Nitsche-type methods to couple meshes via NCIs is the most natural way to couple DG schemes. Here we can distinguish between schemes that use consistent and inconsistent integration. For methods with inconsistent integration, we use integration points dictated by elements on the NCI and evaluate needed quantities in the non-conforming attached elements. Hermann et al.¹¹ used this approach in a two dimensional DG setting for seismic waves on meshes with possibly different element types. Laughton et al.¹² refer to this method as point-to-point interpolation method. Methods using consistent integration collect integration rules on the intersections between the connected elements. This procedure is commonly referred to as “mortaring,” and the intersections are often called “mortars” (without any relation to the Mortar method). Nitsche-type mortaring has been successfully applied in a finite element methods (FEM) setting amongst others in, References 13 and 14 for the inhomogeneous wave equation and Maxwell equations, respectively. The procedure of mortaring is the same for Mortar and Nitsche-type mortaring methods. The difference in both methods is that Nitsche-type methods enforce the coupling directly via numerical fluxes. On the other hand, Mortar methods enforce the coupling via an additional integral (using Lagrange multipliers).

Laughton et al.¹² compared the Nitsche-type mortaring method to the point-to-point interpolation method regarding performance and accuracy in a DG setting. The advantage of point-to-point interpolation over methods with mortaring is its ease of implementation.¹² For the compressible Euler equations in two dimensions, it is shown that point-to-point interpolation outperforms the method with mortaring, considering polynomial degrees between 3 and 7.¹² We expect the performance to close up for long run-times on static triangulations (the quadrature rules of the intersections and the mapping of obtained integration points have to be setup only once). However, we suspect the performance to diverge even more on moving meshes, where the intersections and the mappings have to be updated every time step or Runge–Kutta stage. The disadvantage of point-to-point interpolation is that it introduces numerical errors related to aliasing. Methods using mortaring do not face this issue. To obtain similar errors for point-to-point interpolation compared to the Nitsche-type mortaring, Laughton et al.¹² increases the number of quadrature points.

Solving the scalar acoustic wave equation utilizing conforming FEM has some unattractive peculiarities. It requires specific time-stepping schemes and suffers from numerical dispersion.^{2,15} Transforming the acoustic wave equation to a first-order system yields the acoustic conservation equations. These acoustic conservation equations do not include a second-order temporal derivative; thus, standard time-stepping methods, such as Runge–Kutta methods, can be applied. Furthermore, the velocities of non-harmonically vibrating surfaces natively appear in governing equations, making a straightforward application of these velocities as boundary conditions (BCs) possible. Additionally, conservation laws are ideally suited for finite volume or DG discretizations,¹⁶ and it is possible to find less dispersive schemes by adding numerical diffusion using numerical fluxes.

We applied the point-to-point interpolation method in Reference 17 and showed that it provides optimal rates of convergence in space. Later, we observed instabilities for some element configurations using this method. Within this work, we show that for DG discretizations of the acoustic conservation equations, it is not safe to use point-to-point interpolation since the method is not only less accurate but yields spurious oscillations that lead to instabilities in some cases. To the best of the authors' knowledge, no Nitsche-type mortaring formulation exists for the acoustic conservation

laws in literature. We present a test case in which mentioned instabilities occur and show that using consistent integration via mortaring is a remedy.

Additionally, we provide in-depth convergence studies for the Nitsche-type mortaring approach and show optimal spatial convergence rates on the global computational domain and separately on domains with coarse and high resolution.

2 | GOVERNING EQUATIONS

The wave equation reads

$$\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial t^2} - \rho \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p \right) = f \quad \text{in } \Omega \times [0, T], \quad (1)$$

on a domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ of dimension d and in a time interval $[0, T]$. Here, p is the acoustic pressure, c is the sound speed, and the underlying material's density is ρ . The wave equation is a reformulation of the acoustic conservation equations of momentum and mass

$$\rho \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \nabla p = 0 \quad \text{in } \Omega \times [0, T], \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \rho \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = F \quad \text{in } \Omega \times [0, T], \quad (3)$$

$$p = g_p \quad \text{on } \partial\Omega_p^D, \quad (4)$$

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{g}_u \quad \text{on } \partial\Omega_u^D, \quad (5)$$

$$\rho c \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} = Y p \quad \text{on } \partial\Omega^Y. \quad (6)$$

At boundaries we can apply pressure DBCs (4), velocity DBCs (5), and admittance BCs (6) by setting the normal component of the velocity and a certain admittance Y .

3 | NUMERICAL METHOD

3.1 | Notation

The physical domain Ω is represented by the computational domain $\Omega_h(t) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{N_{\text{el}}} \Omega_{e_i} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, with the space dimension d . Within this work, it consists of N_{el} possibly overlapping rectangular/hexahedral finite elements and is bounded by $\Gamma_h = \partial\Omega_h$. A finite element spans Ω_e and is bounded by $\partial\Omega_e$. The solution is continuous inside elements and, due to the nature of DG, discontinuous between elements. The acoustic particle velocity \mathbf{u} and acoustic pressure p are subject to the broken polynomial spaces \mathcal{V}_h for the corresponding test and trial functions

$$\mathcal{V}_h^u = \{ \mathbf{u}_h \in [L_2(\Omega_h)]^d : \mathbf{u}_h(\mathbf{x})|_{\Omega^e} = \tilde{\mathbf{u}}(\xi)|_{\tilde{\Omega}^e} \in [\mathcal{P}_{k_u}(\tilde{\Omega}^e)]^d, \forall e \in [1, N_{\text{el}}] \}, \quad (7)$$

$$\mathcal{V}_h^p = \{ p_h \in L_2(\Omega_h) : p_h|_{\Omega^e} = \tilde{p}_h|_{\tilde{\Omega}^e} \in \mathcal{P}_{k_p}(\tilde{\Omega}^e), \forall e \in [1, N_{\text{el}}] \}. \quad (8)$$

Here \mathcal{P}_k is the space of polynomial functions with order k on a reference element. Coordinates in the physical space are $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_d)^T$; their representation on a reference element are $\xi = (\xi_1, \dots, \xi_d)^T$. To transfer between \mathbf{x} and ξ a bidirectional mapping

$$\varphi : \begin{cases} \Omega^e \rightarrow \tilde{\Omega}^e \\ \mathbf{x} \mapsto \xi = \varphi(\mathbf{x}, \Omega^e) \end{cases}, \quad \varphi^{-1} : \begin{cases} \tilde{\Omega}^e \rightarrow \Omega^e \\ \xi \mapsto \mathbf{x} = \varphi^{-1}(\xi, \Omega^e) \end{cases}, \quad (9)$$

can be used. The discrete representations of the continuous pressure and velocity fields in the reference space read

$$\tilde{\mathbf{u}}_h^e(\xi) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{N^{k_u}}} N_i^{k_u}(\xi) \mathbf{u}_i^e, \quad \tilde{p}_h^e(\xi) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{N^{k_p}}} N_i^{k_p}(\xi) p_i^e, \quad (10)$$

with the number of shape functions n_{N^k} defined on a volume element; for instance, the pressure in the one dimensional case has a number of $n_{N^{k_p}} = k_p + 1$ shape functions. The shape functions N_i^k are constructed by Lagrange polynomials of degree k . Within this work, the same polynomial orders k for velocity and pressure ($k_u = k_p$) are utilized. We denote the interior information of an element Ω^e with $(\cdot)^-$ and the exterior information of adjacent elements with $(\cdot)^+$. Consequently, the current element (from now on called “primary element”) is denoted as Ω^e , and the neighboring elements (or “secondary elements”) are described as Ω^e_+ . The outward pointing normal vectors of the primary element are \mathbf{n}^- . In the case of conforming and non-conforming element transitions, the faces of primary and secondary elements coincide, $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{n}^- = -\mathbf{n}^+$. In the case of overlapping elements, this is not the case. Fluxes are evaluated over interfaces that align with the primary element face, and thus we still demand $\mathbf{n}^+ = -\mathbf{n}^-$ in this case. Accordingly, any scalar or vectorial quantity b is implicitly defined on the primary element if no superscript explicitly assigns it to the primary or secondary element $b = b^-$. We choose the notation for the averaging operator $\{\{\cdot\}\}$, jump operator $[\cdot]$, and normal jump operator $[[\cdot]]$ according to Bassi et al.^{18,19} They are $\{\{b\}\} = (b^- + b^+)/2$, $[b] = b^- - b^+$, and $[[b]] = b^- \otimes \mathbf{n}^- + b^+ \otimes \mathbf{n}^+$. Hereinafter, the integrals are written in the compressed notation $(a, b)_{\Omega^e} = \int_{\Omega^e} a \cdot b \, d\Omega$ and $(a, b)_{\partial\Omega^e} = \int_{\partial\Omega^e} a \cdot b \, d\Gamma$, where the operator \cdot indicates an inner product and a represents an arbitrary quantity of the same dimension as b . All operators are given in the notation considering element boundaries; therefore, each facet becomes a primary and secondary element. For numerical integration, we employ Gaussian quadrature. On an element of spatial dimension d we use $n_q = (k + 1)^d$ quadrature points for the volume integrals and $n_q = (k + 1)^{d-1}$ on element faces. Boundary conditions are applied using a mirror principle, compare Reference 16. While pressure and velocity DBCs are defined as

$$p^+ = -p^- + 2g_p; \quad \mathbf{u}^+ = \mathbf{u}^- \quad \text{on } \partial\Omega_p^D, \quad (11)$$

$$\mathbf{u}^+ = -\mathbf{u}^- + 2\mathbf{g}_u; \quad p^+ = p^- \quad \text{on } \partial\Omega_u^D. \quad (12)$$

Admittance BCs read

$$\mathbf{u}^+ = \left(\frac{2Y}{\rho c} p^- - \mathbf{u}^- \cdot \mathbf{n} \right) \mathbf{n}; \quad p^+ = p^- \quad \text{on } \partial\Omega^Y. \quad (13)$$

Reflecting BCs and first-order absorbing BCs²⁰ (ABC) are achieved by setting the admittance to $Y = 0$ and $Y = 1$, respectively. If the first order ABC is insufficient, a corresponding perfectly matched layer formulation is provided in Reference 21 for conforming FEM formulations.

3.2 | Spatial discretization

The numerical method, without non-conformities, has been described briefly in Reference 22. Within this section, we will recall it in a more detailed manner to be able to extend the formulation.

The semi-discrete system is obtained as usual (cf. Reference 16). The governing equations are multiplied by the test functions \mathbf{w}_h and q_h , and integrated over the computational domain Ω_h . For DG schemes, it is crucial to perform the integration by parts to ensure boundary terms exist. With this, we end up with a corresponding weak formulation. For given equations, it is also possible to perform a second integration by parts to obtain the strong formulation (cf. Reference 16) which is used in Reference 23. Eventually, numerical fluxes (denoted by the superscript $*$) are introduced into the boundary integrals. This results in the semi-discrete system of equations

$$\left(\mathbf{w}_h, \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_h}{\partial t} \right)_{\Omega^e} - \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{w}_h, p_h \right)_{\Omega^e} + \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \mathbf{w}_h \cdot \mathbf{n}, p_h^* \right)_{\partial\Omega^e} = 0 \quad \forall \mathbf{w}_h \in \mathcal{V}_h^u, \quad (14)$$

$$\left(q_h, \frac{\partial p_h}{\partial t} \right)_{\Omega^e} - (\rho c^2 \nabla q_h, \mathbf{u}_h)_{\Omega^e} + (\rho c^2 q_h \cdot \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{u}_h^*)_{\partial\Omega^e} = (c^2 q_h, f)_{\Omega^e} \quad \forall q_h \in \mathcal{V}_h^p. \quad (15)$$

We use Lax–Friedrichs fluxes, as also done in References 23–26,

$$\begin{aligned} p_h^* &= \{\{p_h\}\} + \frac{\tau}{2} [[\mathbf{u}_h]], \\ \mathbf{u}_h^* &= \{\{\mathbf{u}_h\}\} + \frac{\gamma}{2} [[p_h]]. \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

The penalty parameters τ and γ are derived using the Rankine–Hugoniot condition when solving for the Riemann solution,^{23,27} resulting in $\tau = \rho c$ and $\gamma = \frac{1}{\rho c}$. These penalty parameters are consistent in terms of a dimension analysis which demands $\tau \sim \rho c$ and $\gamma \sim \frac{1}{\rho c}$. Element boundaries are either located inside the domain $\partial\Omega_{\text{inner}}^e$, at non-conforming boundaries Γ_{NCI}^e , or subject to BCs ($\partial\Omega_p^{D,e}$, $\partial\Omega_u^{D,e}$, or $\partial\Omega^{Y,e}$). The explicit notation of the discretization at element boundaries reads

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \mathbf{w}_h \cdot \mathbf{n}, p_h^*\right)_{\partial\Omega^e} &= \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \mathbf{w}_h \cdot \mathbf{n}, p_h^*\right)_{\partial\Omega_{\text{inner}}^e} + \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \mathbf{w}_h \cdot \mathbf{n}, g_p\right)_{\partial\Omega_p^{D,e}} + \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \mathbf{w}_h \cdot \mathbf{n}, p_h^- + \tau(\mathbf{u}_h^- - \mathbf{g}_u)\right)_{\partial\Omega_u^{D,e}} \\ &+ \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \mathbf{w}_h \cdot \mathbf{n}, p_h^- + \tau\left(\mathbf{u}_h^- \cdot \mathbf{n} - \frac{Y}{\rho c} p_h^-\right)\right)_{\partial\Omega^{Y,e}} + \left(\frac{1}{\rho} \mathbf{w}_h \cdot \mathbf{n}, p_{h,\text{NCI}}^*(p_h^-, p_h^+, \mathbf{u}_h^-, \mathbf{u}_h^+)\right)_{\Gamma_{\text{NCI}}^e}, \end{aligned} \tag{17}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} (\rho c^2 q_h \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{u}_h^*)_{\partial\Omega^e} &= (\rho c^2 q_h \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{u}_h^*)_{\partial\Omega_{\text{inner}}^e} + (\rho c^2 q_h \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{u}_h^- + \gamma(p_h^- - g_p))_{\partial\Omega_p^{D,e}} + (\rho c^2 q_h \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{g}_u)_{\partial\Omega_u^{D,e}} \\ &+ (c q_h, 2Y p_h^-)_{\partial\Omega^{Y,e}} + (\rho c^2 q_h \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{u}_{h,\text{NCI}}^*(p_h^-, p_h^+, \mathbf{u}_h^-, \mathbf{u}_h^+))_{\Gamma_{\text{NCI}}^e}. \end{aligned} \tag{18}$$

In this notation Γ_{NCI}^e are the faces of the primary elements. A more detailed description of how integrals are computed in the non-conforming case is provided in Sections 3.3 and 3.4.

To be able to consider different materials, we have to adapt the fluxes at the NCIs. To this end, we use the LDG fluxes with special self-adapting upwinding parameters and penalty terms as an additional stabilization mechanism to increase the numerical diffusion²³

$$\begin{aligned} p_{h,\text{NCI}}^* &= \frac{\tau^+ p_h^- + \tau^- p_h^+}{\tau^- + \tau^+} + \frac{\tau^- \tau^+}{\tau^- + \tau^+} \llbracket \mathbf{u}_h \rrbracket, \\ \mathbf{u}_{h,\text{NCI}}^* &= \frac{\gamma^+ \mathbf{u}_h^- + \gamma^- \mathbf{u}_h^+}{\gamma^- + \gamma^+} + \frac{\gamma^- \gamma^+}{\gamma^- + \gamma^+} \llbracket p_h \rrbracket. \end{aligned} \tag{19}$$

We can see, that the fluxes simplify to the Lax–Friedrichs fluxes of (16) for homogenous materials. In latter case $c^- \rho^- = c^+ \rho^+$ and therefore, $\gamma^- = \gamma^+$ and $\tau^- = \tau^+$.

3.3 | Point-to-point interpolation

Non-conformity can be easily handled by the evaluation of all quantities in consistent quadrature points;^{11,12} that is, we have to evaluate fluxes at the same point in the physical space. The primary element dictates the used quadrature points; see Figure 1. For conforming DG this leads to the same quadrature points in the reference space $\xi_- = \xi_+$. However, if non-conformities in the mesh are present, quadrature points that correspond to the same coordinate in the physical space differ, and we have to find quadrature points on the secondary element as

$$\xi^+ = \varphi(\mathbf{x}, \Omega_+^e). \tag{20}$$

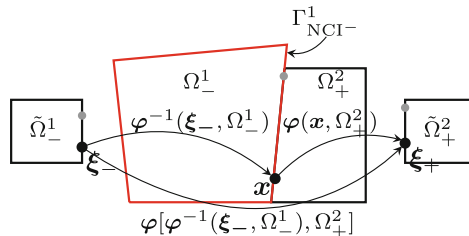


FIGURE 1 Point-to-point interpolation: Shown is the mapping of a exemplary quadrature point ξ_- (associated to the primary element Ω_1^1) to the the non-conformingly connected secondary element Ω_2^2 . Source: Adapted from Reference 17.

Therefore, we can explicitly state that an arbitrary physical flux \mathcal{F}_h^* is a function of arbitrary quantities b , evaluated at the same physical coordinates $\mathbf{x} = \boldsymbol{\varphi}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\xi}^-, \Omega^e)$ (provided by the integration rule of the corresponding primary element face)

$$\mathcal{F}_h^*(b^-, b^+) = \mathcal{F}_h^*(b^-(\boldsymbol{\xi}^-), b^+(\boldsymbol{\xi}^+)). \quad (21)$$

The integration over a non-conforming face of a primary element subsequently reads

$$\int_{\partial\Omega^e} \mathcal{F}_h^*(b^-, b^+) \, d\Gamma_{\text{NCI}^e}^e \approx \sum_{q=1}^{n_q} w_q \mathcal{F}_h^*(b^-(\boldsymbol{\xi}^-), b^+(\boldsymbol{\xi}^+)) |J_q|. \quad (22)$$

w_q are the weights of the Gauss quadrature, and the Jacobi determinants $|J_q|$ in quadrature points q correspond to the primary element face. If not specified otherwise, the number of quadrature points on each primary element face is $n_q = (k+1)^{d-1}$. Using more integration points leads to a better approximation of the integral and thus enhances the solution.¹²

3.4 | Nitsche-type mortaring

In contrast to point-to-point interpolation, Nitsche-type mortaring computes the integration over primary element faces at NCIs as the sum of collected quadrature rules on the mortars, see Figure 2A. Thus the integral computes as

$$\int_{\partial\Omega^e} \mathcal{F}_h^*(b^-, b^+) \, d\Gamma_{\text{NCI}^e}^e \approx \sum_{m=1}^{n_m} \sum_{q=1}^{n_q} w_q \mathcal{F}_h^*(b^-(\boldsymbol{\xi}^-), b^+(\boldsymbol{\xi}^+)) |J_q^m|. \quad (23)$$

In (23), n_m is the number of found intersections. The Jacobi determinants $|J_q^m|$ in quadrature point q is now determined on mortar m . The number of quadrature points on each mortar is $n_q = (k+1)^{d-1}$, thus the number of integration points used to compute the integral over each primary element face is $m \cdot n_q$. This way, the integration on the NCI is consistent; the discrete secondary solution on the NCI is split into piecewise polynomials of order k for which Gauss quadrature is exact (if enough quadrature points n_q are chosen) without aliasing. Constructing the mortars is more challenging to implement and reduces performance.¹²

3.5 | Nitsche-type mortaring with overlapping elements

For overlapping elements, intersections are computed between the face of the primary element and connected secondary volume elements; for example, in 2D simulations, intersections are computed between a quadrilateral and a line, see Figure 2B. By computing the intersections the same way for non-overlapping cases, the implementation for Nitsche-type mortaring is independent of element overlaps (see Section 4). We also refer to overlapping boundaries as $\Gamma_{\text{NCI}^e}^e$. This way, equations from Section 3.2 are valid without further ado. From (16) and (19), it can be easily seen that chosen numerical

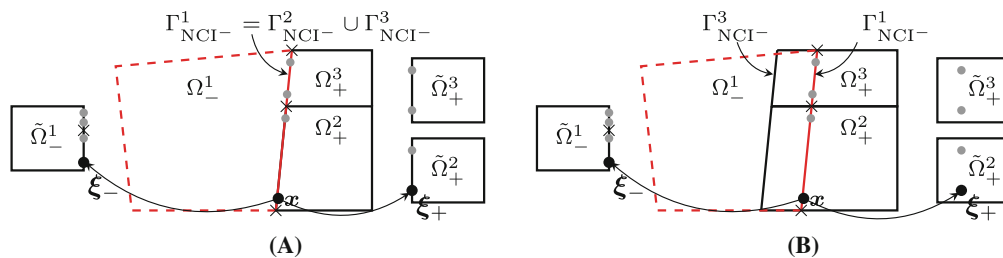


FIGURE 2 Nitsche-type mortaring: In contrast to point-to-point interpolation, quadrature points are not dictated by the primary element. Instead, the mortars between elements are computed, and quadrature points, weights, and Jacobians correspond to the mortar patches. This way, there is no aliasing, and values form a smooth representation in each quadrature. (A) Non-conforming connection: Intersections between secondary and primary elements align; (B) overlapping elements: Intersections are computed between the face of the primary element and connected secondary volume elements. Thus, intersections do not align

fluxes are conservative, that is, the definition of the numerical fluxes is symmetric. For the overlapping case, this is not true since the influx into the primary domain happens at a different position in space than the efflux of the secondary domain and vice versa (cf. Figure 2B). Note that our methodology itself is not perfectly conservative since we are using L^2 spaces for pressure and velocity (thus, $\mathbf{u}_h^- \neq \mathbf{u}_h^+$ and $p_h^- \neq p_h^+$).

4 | REMARKS ON IMPLEMENTATION

Our implementations will be freely available as a part of the the software library `deal.II`²⁸ and the open source software project ExaDG²⁹.

In the case of point-to-point interpolation, we are collecting all quadrature points on the NCIs mapped to the physical space. After that, we perform a global search based on distributed bounding boxes for secondary elements that hold these integration points and store the corresponding quadrature points in the reference space. In each time step, we evaluate pressure and velocities on the secondary elements and use the results to compute the fluxes over the NCIs. If a quadrature point is found on multiple elements, we use the average value in the computation of the fluxes. Note that in the case of overlapping elements, the quadrature points corresponding to the primary element faces are located inside an arbitrary element of the secondary mesh and vice versa. This approach works on curved elements without further ado.

In the case of Nitsche-type mortaring, we first create the mortars between the primary and secondary elements. To ensure our implementation is the same in case of element overlaps and standard NCIs, we are computing the $d - 1$ dimensional intersections between d and $d - 1$ dimensional geometric entities, independent if elements overlap or not. The $d - 1$ element is a face of a primary element. This way, quadrature rules are defined on the primary element faces, independent if elements overlap or not; again corresponding quadrature points are located inside arbitrary elements of the secondary mesh or on the boundary of the secondary domain for the overlapping and non-conforming case, respectively. In our implementations, we extract the vertices of the non-conforming or overlapping *faces of the primary elements* and all vertices of possibly connected *secondary volume elements*. We then use CGAL³⁰ to compute the inter-dimensional intersections and eventually create mapped quadrature rules on each mortar patch. The rest of the implementation is nearly the same as for the point-to-point interpolation: Additionally to the quadrature points, we store the Jacobi determinants of the mortar patches at the quadrature points. We evaluate pressure and velocity in all stored quadrature points (in both mesh regions) at every time step and use the stored Jacobi determinants to compute and test the fluxes over the NCIs. Normal vectors are not stored; instead, we use the negative normal vectors of the primary element during flux evaluation (also in the overlapping case). This approach limits us to non-curved elements at NCIs because the mortars are spanned between the vertices of the primary element faces. Since CGAL is working with triangular/tetrahedral elements, mortar patches are always triangular in the 3D case (even if the patch could be rectangular). Note that the number of created mortars and thus the number of quadrature points highly depends on the element configuration.

5 | NUMERICAL RESULTS

This section provides numerical results using point-to-point interpolation and Nitsche-type mortaring. First, we show instabilities related to non-smooth representations of values at NCIs for the point-to-point interpolation method. We show that these instabilities do not occur if we use Nitsche-type mortaring instead. For Nitsche-type mortaring, we provide in-depth convergence results for different mesh regions, quantify the error introduced at the NCI, and provide results for a test case with heterogeneous material. Additionally, we show that the method also works if elements are overlapping. From now on, all spatial values are given in m.

5.1 | Vibrating membrane

To be able to compute errors exactly, we use the test case of a vibrating membrane which has also been used, among others, in References 24 and 31. For this test case, the analytical solution at each time t is known, and for a two-dimensional domain, it reads for the pressure

$$p = \cos(M\sqrt{2\pi}t) \sin(M\pi x) \sin(M\pi y), \quad (24)$$

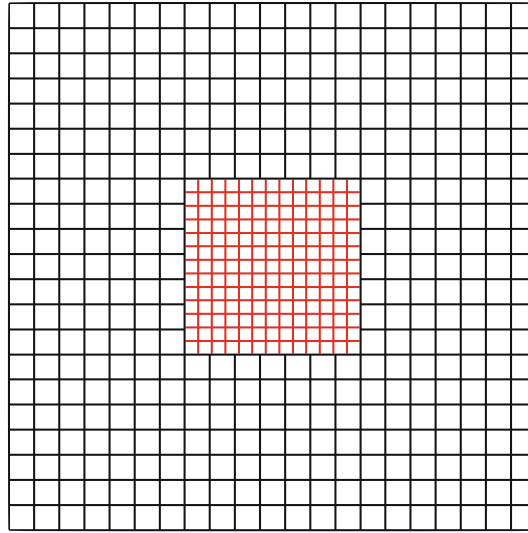


FIGURE 3 Computational mesh consisting of two mesh regions which are connected via a non-conforming interface.

and for the acoustic particle velocity

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{-\sin(M\sqrt{2}\pi t)}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \cos(M\pi x) \sin(M\pi y) \\ \sin(M\pi x) \cos(M\pi y) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (25)$$

assuming no acoustic loads $F = 0 \text{ kg m}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$, as well as $\rho = 1 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ and $c = 1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$. Our simulations' computational domain Ω consists of two mesh regions connected via NCIs, as shown in Figure 3. The outer region Ω_o is a rectangular domain with a rectangular hole in which the inner region Ω_i is embedded. Thus, $\Omega = \Omega_o \cup \Omega_i$ and within the following $\Omega_o = (0, 0) \times (0.1, 0.1) \setminus \Omega_i$ and $\Omega_i = (1/30, 1/30) \times (2/30, 2/30)$. We use $M = 120$ modes, which leads to $p = 0 \text{ Pa}$ at the boundaries of the computational domain Ω and we apply homogenous pressure DBCs $g_p = 0 \text{ Pa}$. All computations use the implementation of the low storage Runge–Kutta version RKC84³² from EXaDG, see Reference 33. The CFL condition

$$\Delta t = \frac{\text{Cr } h_{\min}}{k^{1.5} c_{\max}}, \quad (26)$$

gives the required time step size Δt needed for a stable temporal discretization. We use the minimum edge length h_{\min} of all existing elements, the polynomial degree k , and the largest value of the speed of sound c_{\max} for its computation. To account for the different spacing between Legendre–Gauss–Lobatto (used as quadrature points) we are using the superscript 1.5 as proposed in Reference 34. For a detailed discussion on the CFL condition for explicit Runge–Kutta methods, we refer to Reference 35. From this point forward, all computations use time step sizes computed by the CFL condition with a Courant number $\text{Cr} = 0.2$.

5.1.1 | Instabilities

The test case perfectly conserves the sound energy

$$E = \int_{\Omega} \left(\frac{p^2}{2\rho c^2} + \frac{\rho(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u})}{2} \right) d\Omega. \quad (27)$$

Since the analytic solution exists, we can compute the exact sound energy contained in the system as $E_{\text{exact}} = 1.25 \text{ mJ}$. The mesh (cf. Figure 3) has element edge lengths of $h_{\Omega_i} = 1/(30 \cdot 13)$ on the NCI for the inner domain and $h_{\Omega_o} = 1/(30 \cdot 7)$ on the NCI for the outer domain. Figure 4A shows the sound energy in the system over time for point-to-point interpolation. After a certain time, instabilities manifest as a non-physical rapid increase of sound energy.

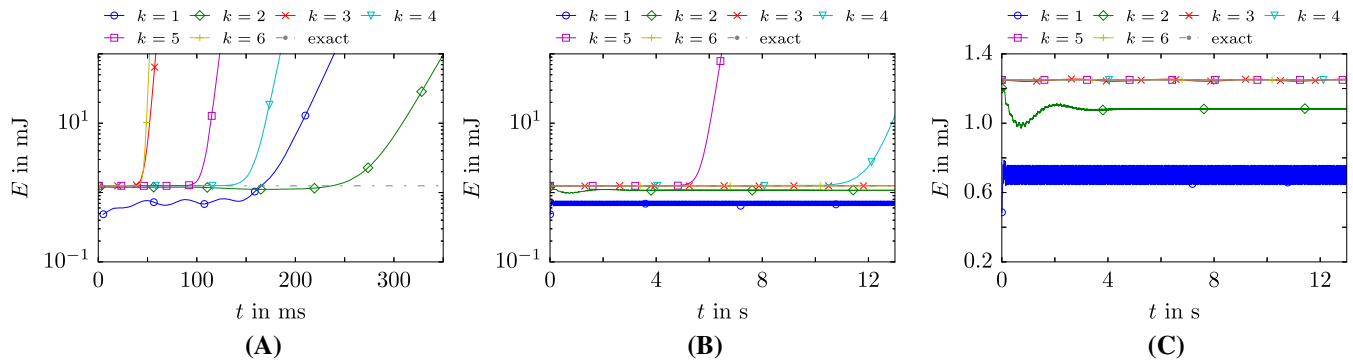


FIGURE 4 Sound energy over time computed for orders $k = 1$ to $k = 6$. The given setup for the vibrating membrane test case is perfectly energy conservative and thus energy has to be constant over time. For point-to-point interpolation, instabilities form after some time while the simulation stays stable for consistent integration with Nitsche-type mortaring. (A) Point-to-point interpolation: $n_q = k + 1$; (B) point-to-point interpolation: $n_q = 3(k + 1)$; (C) Nitsche-type mortaring

Obviously, the approach suffers from aliasing; the integration of the primary elements only includes information from each connected element if quadrature points are found in every element. One can regard this as a Dirichlet-Dirichlet approach, where the values are picked from the secondary domain instead of, an analytical function. Since there are no instabilities if we apply DBCs from the analytical solution to each domain separately, this reasoning does not explain the observed instabilities.

The difference in the applied Dirichlet boundary values is that in the case of an analytical function, the boundary values form a smooth representation of the solution. In the case of using values from the secondary domain, boundary values are not necessarily smooth. If quadrature points are located in different elements, we might face jumps in the solution representation. While these jumps are assumed to be less distinctive in the case of continuous FE methods, the nature of the DG method intensifies this issue. Nevertheless, the same also happens in the case of continuous FE methods, in the case where whole secondary elements are not sampled by any quadrature point of the primary element. The jumps between Dirichlet values introduce spurious oscillations that eventually lead to unstable simulations. To quantify that this is indeed the source of instabilities, we tested to interpolate solution values between domains into the DoFs. This way, there are no jumps between quadrature points since the shape function of the primal element enforces a smooth representation of the values. Nevertheless, we observed instabilities in the case of high polynomial degrees. These instabilities are related to Gibbs' phenomena. Significant differences between DoFs and the high-order shape functions lead to ringing modes, typically observed in shock capturing. Applying techniques to interpolated values that are usually used in shock capturing, such as modal filtering,¹⁶ lead to stable schemes. However, this also leads to a drop in the obtained spatial convergence rates; therefore, we are not further discussing those approaches.

Point-to-point interpolation with over-integration enhances the solution¹² but can not guarantee stability. As discussed above, the solution in the secondary domain might have jumps along the integration domains (i.e., primary element faces). Therefore, the Gauss quadrature of secondary values along the primary element is generally not consistent since the secondary solution can not be represented by any polynomial along the primary element if jumps or kinks are present. Results in Figure 4B are obtained with $n_q = 3(k + 1)$ quadrature points for each surface element at the NCI. The number of quadrature points is chosen since the maximum number of elements on the NCI that are touching is three, and thus, a maximum of three times $n_q = k + 1$ quadrature points are used in the case of mortaring. Since errors due to inconsistent integration get smaller, the accumulation of spurious oscillations takes longer. During a runtime of 13 s, we can not observe instabilities for polynomial degrees $k = 1, 2, 3$, and $k = 6$. However, for polynomial degrees $k = 4$, and $k = 5$ the simulations get unstable. While over-integration enhances the solution and, in some cases, yields stable simulations (for the first 13 s), it can not generally guarantee stability.

According to the previous discussion, the phenomenon is not expected in the case of Nitsche-type mortaring. Since the integrals are evaluated on intersections between elements, the representation of values is forced to be continuous in each quadrature rule. Consequently, integration over each part of the shape function is exact. The results are depicted in Figure 4C; we do not observe instabilities. From this point forward, we will only consider the Nitsche-type mortaring approach.

Note that the main focus of the test case is to show instabilities for any polynomial degree for point-to-point interpolation without over-integration. However, the mesh resolution for low polynomial degrees k is chosen too poor for a good approximation of the primal variables. According to Reference 36, the element size h has to be chosen such that

$$k + \frac{1}{2} > \frac{\omega h}{2} + C(\omega h)^{1/3}. \quad (28)$$

In (28), C is a constant that can be chosen unity in practice³⁶ and ω is the wave-number. For the vibrating membrane test case $\omega = 2\pi M$. Using the maximum element size in used triangulation, we obtain $\frac{\omega h}{2} + (\omega h)^{1/3} \approx 3.44$ for current investigations. Thus, we fulfill (28) with polynomial degrees $k > 2$, for $k = 2$ we are slightly off, and for $k = 1$ we have a substantial deviation. Consequently, we can see constant sound energy over time for orders greater than $k = 2$. For $k = 2$, we see a drop in energy due to numerical dispersion originating from the too coarse resolution. For $k = 1$, the resolution is so poor that the sound energy can not be resolved from the beginning, and we observe non-physical oscillations. These results are in accordance to Reference 36, in which it is reported that results might even become qualitatively incorrect for insufficient resolutions. Within the next sections the mesh resolutions are chosen such that (28) is fulfilled for $k = 1$ which successfully removes any non-physical oscillations.

5.1.2 | Convergence results

We use the setup of the previous section with $M = 30$ modes. However, we alter the mesh sizes compared to Figure 3. The elements in the outer domain have initial edge lengths of $h_{o,initial} = 1/(30 \cdot 2)$; in the inner domain initial element edge lengths are $h_{i,initial} = 1/(30 \cdot 3)$. We compute the relative $L2$ error for the pressure $\mathcal{E}_{p,\mathcal{R}}^{L2,rel}$ on region \mathcal{R} after 1 s for different mesh refinements

$$\mathcal{E}_{p,\mathcal{R}}^{L2,rel} = \frac{\sqrt{\int_{\mathcal{R}} (p_h - p_{ana})^2 d\Omega}}{\sqrt{\int_{\mathcal{R}} p_{ana}^2 d\Omega}}, \quad (29)$$

with the analytical solution of the pressure p_{ana} , see Equation (24). The velocity error $\mathcal{E}_{u,\mathcal{R}}^{L2,rel}$ is computed accordingly. Regions are either the global region Ω , the inner region Ω_i , or the outer region Ω_o . The mesh refinement is realized by replacing each quadrilateral cell by four children cells, and the corresponding edge lengths h at refinement level r compute as

$$h = \frac{h_{initial}}{2^r}. \quad (30)$$

We observe optimal convergence rates of order $k + 1$ in space on the global domain Ω , see Figure 5A. The outer domain has a coarser spatial discretization and dominates the errors on the global domain. Therefore, it is not surprising that the errors on the outer domain (Figure 5B) behave similar to the ones on the global domain (Figure 5A). The inner domain has a finer spatial discretization; thus the errors obtained in the inner domain might be shadowed by the errors obtained in the outer domain. However, errors propagate from the outer domain to the inner domain. We also observe optimal convergence rates computing the errors on the inner domain (see Figure 5C). Errors obtained in the inner and outer domain are similar. Thus errors from the outer domain entirely propagated to the inner domain after 1 s. Therefore, in practical applications, one should aim to choose mesh sizes that yield approximately the same errors in each domain. In conclusion, we obtain optimal convergence rates in all regions of the non-conforming mesh and can confidently apply the proposed method, keeping in mind that a jump in element sizes has to be justified, for example, due to different materials.

5.1.3 | Embedding of circular domain

Being able to handle overlaps has two useful properties. Mesh generation gets more straightforward, and rotating interfaces can be handled without the need for curved elements. We provide results for three different grids, depicted in Figure 6, that are prototypical in the context of rotating interfaces. The rectangular domain spans $\Omega_o = [-0.1, 0.1]^2$ and the circular domain Ω_i has a radius of \$0.05\$.

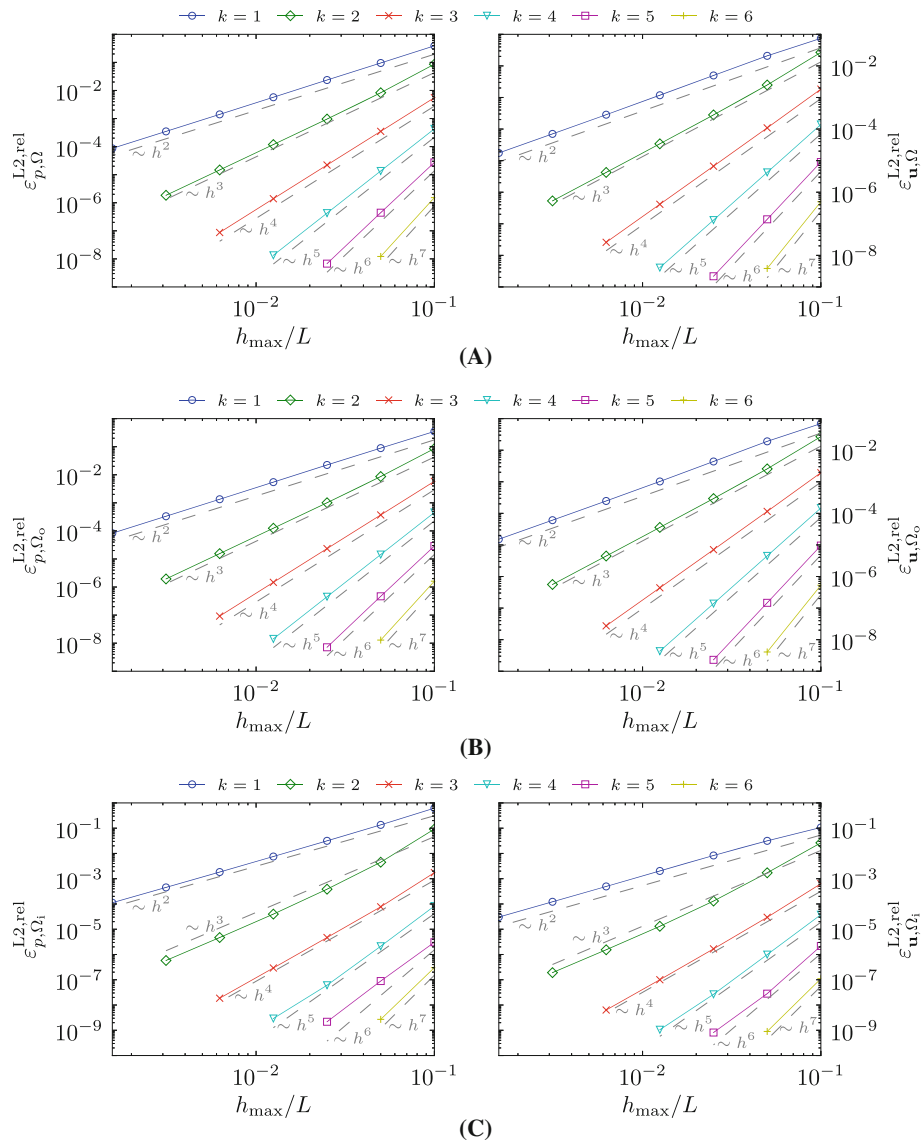


FIGURE 5 Spatial convergence study for the vibrating membrane test case with $M = 30$, defined on the rectangular domain of Figure 3 (with $h_{i,\text{initial}} = 1/(30 \cdot 3)$, and $h_{o,\text{initial}} = 1/(30 \cdot 2)$) using Nitsche-type mortaring: Shown are the relative L2 errors for pressure $\mathcal{E}_{p,\mathcal{R}}^{\text{L2,rel}}$ and velocity $\mathcal{E}_{u,\mathcal{R}}^{\text{L2,rel}}$ on different domains \mathcal{R} . The domain \mathcal{R} might be the global domain Ω , the inner domain Ω_i , or the outer domain Ω_o . (A) Global domain \mathcal{R} is Ω ; (B) outer domain \mathcal{R} is Ω_o ; (C) inner domain \mathcal{R} is Ω_i

In this particular case, it is easily possible to manually compute quadrature rules on the curved intersections since the NCI is a circle (cf. Figure 6A). Note that this does not work for arbitrary shapes in our implementations since we rely on CGAL to compute the intersections. Nevertheless, this approach becomes relevant for large-scale computations with sliding interfaces since the computational cost to create mortars is heavily reduced, compare Reference 37. For the version with a slight overlap (cf. Figure 6B), the radius of the hole is slightly smaller than the radius of the circular domain, $r_{\Omega_o} = 0.05 - 2 \cdot 10^{-3}$. Using overset meshes (cf. Figure 6C) is particularly helpful in generating structured meshes in regions connected to complex geometries.

All meshes have similar numbers of DoFs. Note that the methodology works for arbitrary overlaps. However, the same physical fields are computed in the overlap; thus, redundant work is done if the overlap exceeds one element. Table 1 shows the errors obtained after 1 s for the vibrating membrane test case with $M = 5$ modes. In this case, we apply inhomogeneous pressure DBCs with g_p obtained from the analytical solution. We can see that the errors are in the same order of magnitude for the overlapping and overset mesh. Even though we used fewer DoFs in the overset mesh, we can see slightly better errors, with an outlier at polynomial degree $k = 5$. This relates to the element distortions in the overlapping case. The curved interface setup produces more significant errors than the overlapping setup, the most distinct deviations are

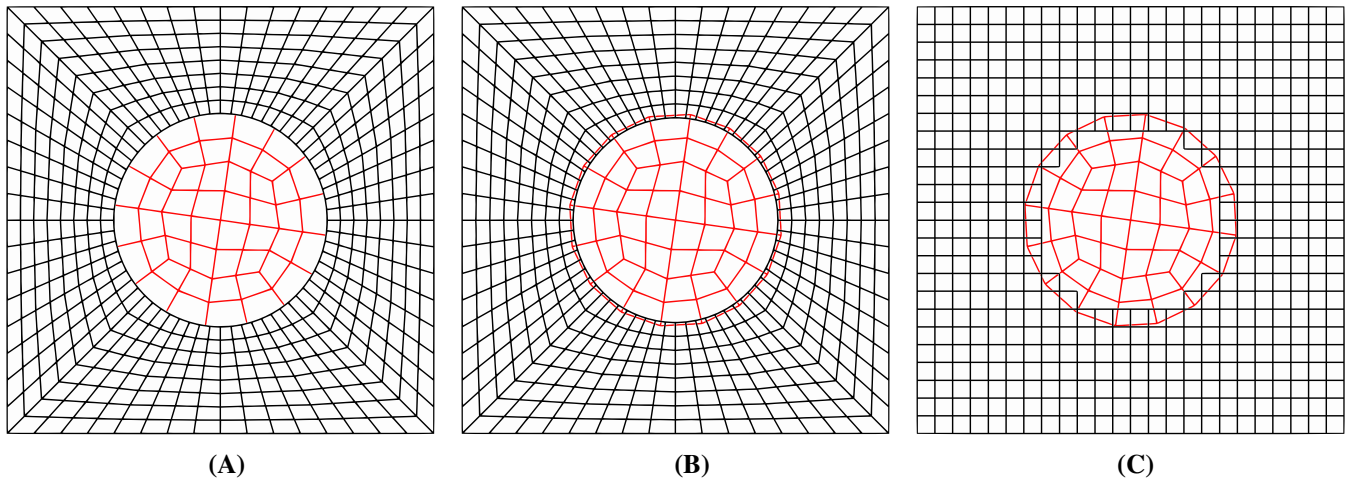


FIGURE 6 Three different meshes that have a circular mesh embedded in a rectangular mesh. (A) Curved interface; (B) small overlap; (C) overset mesh

TABLE 1 Relative L^2 errors $\mathcal{E}_{\Omega}^{L2,rel} = \mathcal{E}_{p,\Omega}^{L2,rel} + \mathcal{E}_{u,\Omega}^{L2,rel}$ for different polynomial degrees k computed on the meshes depicted in Figure 6.

k	Curved interface		Overlap		Overset	
	DoFs	$\mathcal{E}_{\Omega}^{L2,rel}$	DoFs	$\mathcal{E}_{\Omega}^{L2,rel}$	DoFs	$\mathcal{E}_{\Omega}^{L2,rel}$
1	6,720	2.915×10^{-2}	6,720	2.779×10^{-2}	6,432	2.053×10^{-2}
2	15,120	8.303×10^{-4}	15,120	5.444×10^{-4}	14,472	4.641×10^{-4}
3	26,880	4.304×10^{-5}	26,880	8.536×10^{-6}	25,728	7.428×10^{-6}
4	42,000	1.666×10^{-6}	42,000	2.220×10^{-7}	40,200	2.200×10^{-7}
5	60,480	6.974×10^{-8}	60,480	2.328×10^{-9}	57,888	2.367×10^{-9}
6	82,320	2.650×10^{-9}	82,320	1.286×10^{-9}	78,792	1.096×10^{-9}

for polynomial degree $k = 3$ and $k = 4$. This is not expected and needs further investigation before application to sliding rotating interfaces. One possible explanation is that round-off errors are introduced while computing the curved intersections.

Overall, we conclude that our methodology works as expected if elements overlap.

5.2 | Application

As pointed out, NCIs are especially desirable if different spatial resolutions are required. Imagine two fluids with different speeds of sound c . We need different element sizes to resolve the acoustic pressure up to a specific frequency. We use the test case with heterogeneous acoustic material, also simulated by Bangerth et al.,³⁸ Kocher & Bause,³⁹ and Perugia et al.⁴⁰ We adapt the computational domain to show that our implementations work in the 3D case. A wave travels over the interface between two materials. At the interface, the wave is partially transmitted and partially reflected, and an additional wavefront emerges due to the Huygens–Fresnel principle. A sectional view of the setup for this test case is depicted in Figure 7. The domain $\Omega = \Omega_1 \cup \Omega_2$ spans from $\Omega = (-1, -1, -1) \times (1, 1, 1)$. In the left part of the domain the speed of sound is $c_{\Omega_1} = 1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ while it is $c_{\Omega_2} = 3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ in the right part. The density of both fluids is $\rho_{\Omega_1} = \rho_{\Omega_2} = 1 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$. As an initial condition, a pressure pulse is chosen

$$p(t = 0) = \exp(-10^4 \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}), \quad (31)$$

$$\mathbf{u}(t = 0) = \mathbf{0}. \quad (32)$$

The test case is subject to homogenous pressure BCs.

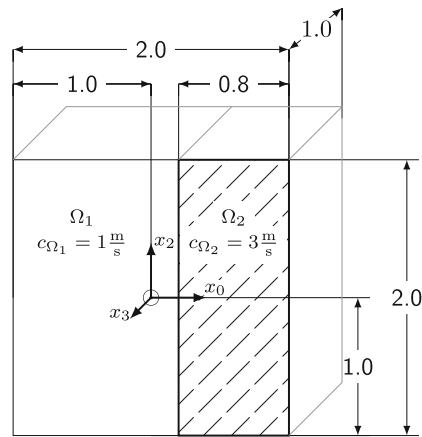


FIGURE 7 Application: Domain with heterogeneous fluids clipped in x_1 - x_2 plane. The speed of sound in both fluids differs, while the density is $\rho_{\Omega_1} = \rho_{\Omega_2} = 1 \text{ kg m}^{-3} = \text{const}$. A pressure pulse \odot is located in the center of the domain as an initial condition.

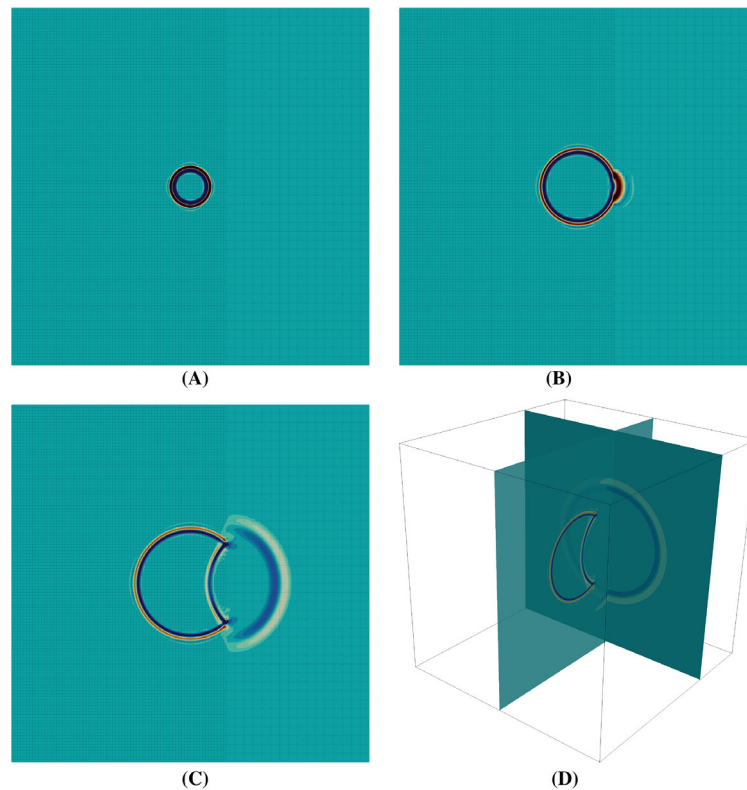


FIGURE 8 Application: Snapshot of acoustic pressure at different times. At $t = 0.3 \text{ s}$ the transmitted, the reflected and the Huygens wave can be seen. (A) x_1 - x_2 plane, $t = 0.1 \text{ s}$; (B) x_1 - x_2 plane, $t = 0.2 \text{ s}$; (C) x_1 - x_2 plane, $t = 0.3 \text{ s}$; (D) 3D view, $t = 0.38 \text{ s}$

In the right domain, we use element sizes that are three times as big compared to the left domain to resolve both domains up to the same frequency. In the left domain we use elements with maximum edge length $h_{\max, \Omega_1} = 0.0167$ and accordingly $h_{\max, \Omega_2} = 0.05$. The used polynomial degree is $k = 3$. The pressure field at different times can be seen in Figure 8.

To quantify the effect of the NCI we also run the simulations on a domain with $h_{\max, \Omega_1} = h_{\max, \Omega_2} = 0.0167$ and $h_{\max, \Omega_1} = h_{\max, \Omega_2} = 0.05$. We record the pressure at 1000 points along $x_1, x_2 = 0, x_3 = 0$ at $t = 0.2 \text{ s}$. The discretization with the smallest mesh size $h_{\max, \Omega_1} = h_{\max, \Omega_2} = 0.0167$ serves as a reference. It is supposed to produce the most accurate solution but uses too many DoFs if we want to resolve the same frequencies in both fluids.

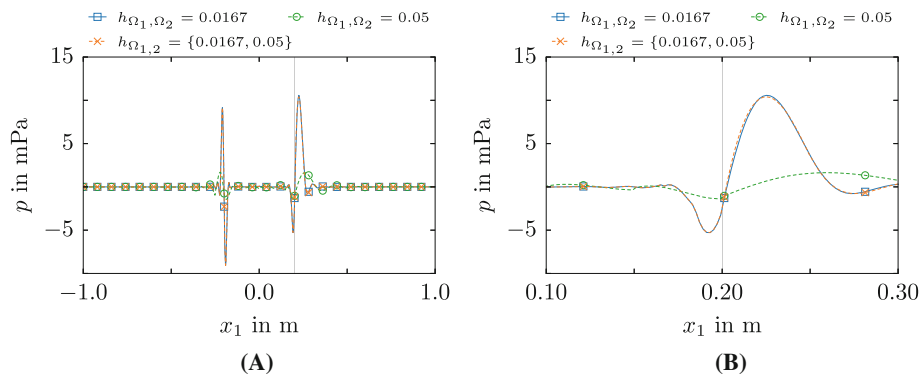


FIGURE 9 Application: Pressure values along x_1 at $x_2 = 0, x_3 = 0$ and at $t = 0.2$ s. The position of the NCI is indicated by the vertical line. (A) Pressure along the whole domain; (B) detail view around NCI

The recorded pressure profile is plotted in Figure 9A. Figure 9B shows a detailed view around the interface. We observe great differences to the reference for the discretization with the biggest mesh size $h_{\max, \Omega_1} = h_{\max, \Omega_2} = 0.05$. However, using the biggest and smallest mesh size for the different regions, employing the non-conforming formulation, gives a result that is in good agreement with the reference solution. In this case, the finest domain has 442,368,000 DoFs while the domain with different element sizes has 271,974,400 DoFs, hence, the problem size is reduced approximately by 40% in comparison the fine problem while keeping the same accuracy. This highly encourages to use NCIs for this kind of problems to effectively reduce the number of DoFs.

6 | CONCLUSION

Using Nitsche-type mortaring, we proposed a stable non-conforming DG discretization for the acoustic conservation laws. We showed that point-to-point interpolation is unsuitable in this setting since it introduces errors related to non-smooth representations of values in quadrature rules. Therefore, we can not avoid the expensive computations of element intersections between primary and secondary elements.

The proposed method collects integration rules on the intersections between secondary volume elements and facets of primary elements. This way, the method naturally extends to overlapping elements and is a perfect starting point for problems with rotating interfaces. The method is subject to optimal spatial convergence rates. Measuring the error region-wise, we can show that the method converges optimally in all sub-domains. Nevertheless, errors are propagating in the domain; therefore, optimal spatial convergence can only be applied in a meaningful way if triangulations are constructed such that errors are of the same magnitude in all parts of the domain. Thus, we recommend using element sizes that resolve the same frequencies in all sub-domains in acoustics. With an application, we demonstrated that this procedure efficiently reduces needed DoFs while maintaining accuracy.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no potential conflict of interests.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Our implementations will be freely available as a part of `deal.II`²⁸ and `ExaDG`²⁹. The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

ORCID

Johannes Heinz  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1087-3596>

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