# 3D Virtual Elements for Elastodynamic Problems 

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A virtual element framework for nonlinear elastodynamics is outlined within this work. The virtual element method (VEM) can be considered as an extension of the classical finite element method. While the finite element method (FEM) is restricted to the usage of regular shaped elements, VEM allows to use non-convex shaped elements for the spatial discretization [1]. It has been applied to various engineering problems in elasticity and other areas, such as plasticity or fracture mechanics as outlined in [3, 4]. This work deals with the extension of VEM to dynamic problems. Low-order ansatz functions in two and three dimensions, with elements being arbitrary shaped, are used in this contribution. The formulations considered in this framework are based on minimization of energy, where a pseudo potential is used for the dynamic behavior. While the stiffness-matrix needs a suitable stabilization, the mass-matrix can be calculated fully through the projection part. For the implicit time integration, Newmark-Method is used. To show the performance of the method, various numerical examples in 2D and 3D are presented.
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## 1 Introduction

The possibility of using arbitrary shaped elements gives more flexibility and new possibilities to geometry discretization in solid- and fluid-mechanics. Due to this fact, VEM increases the variety of possible applications in engineering and science. Up to now, VEM has been investigated, inter alia, for elasto-plastic deformations, considering thermal effects, in [4], hyperelastic materials at finite deformations in [7], crack-propagation for 2D elastic solids at small strains in [3] and phase-field modeling of brittle and ductile fracture in $[2,6]$.
Despite the fact that dynamic behavior has a strong influence on the mechanical properties and the prediction of their real response, the investigations introduced above are only done for static problems so far. This has motivated the authors in [5] to extend the application of VEM from the static to the dynamic case in the finite deformation range.

## 2 Formulation of the virtual element method

### 2.1 The VEM Ansatz

The main idea of the virtual element method relies on the split of the ansatz space $\boldsymbol{u}_{h}$ into a projected part $\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}$ and a remainder $\boldsymbol{u}_{h}-\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{u}_{h}=\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}+\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{h}-\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

For a low order linear ansatz, the projection $\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}$ at element level takes for three-dimensional elements the form

$$
\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}=\mathbf{H} \mathbf{a} \quad \text { with } \quad \mathbf{H}=\left[\begin{array}{cccccccccccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & X & 0 & 0 & Y & 0 & 0 & Z & 0 & 0  \tag{2}\\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & X & 0 & 0 & Y & 0 & 0 & Z & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & X & 0 & 0 & Y & 0 & 0 & Z
\end{array}\right]
$$

where a represents the twelve unknown virtual parameter $\mathbf{a}=\bigcup \mathbf{a}_{i}$ which have to be determined. The unknown virtual parameters can be computed implicitly with the help of the following condition, see [7]:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla \boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi} \stackrel{!}{=} \frac{1}{\Omega_{e}} \int_{\Gamma_{e}} \boldsymbol{u}_{h} \otimes \boldsymbol{N} d \Gamma \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{N}$ denotes the outward normal vector on the reference boundary $\Gamma_{e}$ of the domain $\Omega_{e}$, which belongs to a virtual element $e$. Since the space of employed ansatz functions is linear, the gradient of the projected displacements (left hand side

[^0]of (3)) are constant over the entire element and takes the simple form:
\[

\nabla \boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}=\left[$$
\begin{array}{lll}
a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14}  \tag{4}\\
a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\
a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34}
\end{array}
$$\right]
\]

For 2 D elements, the right hand side of equation (3) can simply be evaluated at the edges of the element, which are line segments. Using linear ansatz, the displacements at the boundary of the element are known at the straight line segments, see [7]. Simply speaking, the virtual parameters in (4) are linked to the known nodal displacements at the boundary of the virtual element. For the 3D case, the computation of the virtual parameters is not straight forward. Here, the boundary of the element consists of 2D polygonal faces. Therefore an appropriate way is to sub triangulate the polygon in to three noded triangles and use standard ansatz function for a linear triangle with the associated Gauss points, as described in [7]. Up to now, we are only able to compute the virtual parameters which are related to the gradient of the projected displacement (4). Further we need to compute the three unknown virtual parameters $\mathbf{a}_{i 1}, i \subset 1,2,3$, which are related to a constant strain field. To ensure uniqueness, we adopt the condition, that the sum of the nodal values of $\boldsymbol{u}_{h}$ and of its projection $\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}$ are equal, see [5,7]:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{n_{V}} \sum_{I=1}^{n_{V}} \boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}\left(\mathbf{X}_{I}\right)=\frac{1}{n_{V}} \sum_{I=1}^{n_{V}} \boldsymbol{u}_{h}\left(\mathbf{X}_{I}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathbf{X}_{I}$ are the coordinates of the nodal point $I$.

### 2.2 Construction of the element mass-matrix for vem

For the computation of the element mass-matrix the same split is used for the accelerations $\ddot{\boldsymbol{u}}_{h}$ as for the displacements in (1):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ddot{\boldsymbol{u}}_{h}=\ddot{\boldsymbol{u}}_{\Pi}+\left(\ddot{\boldsymbol{u}}_{h}-\ddot{\boldsymbol{u}}_{\Pi}\right), \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\ddot{\boldsymbol{u}}_{\Pi}$ are the projected accelerations. For the computation of the projected accelerations, we use the same ansatz and same conditions (3) and (5) as for the projected displacements:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ddot{\boldsymbol{u}}_{\Pi}=\mathbf{H} \ddot{\mathbf{a}} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where ä denote the virtual accelerations. To construct an elastodynamic virtual element, it is computationally advantageous to use the software tool AceGen, see [7]. The construction of the element mass-matrix starts from the pseudo-potential:

$$
\begin{equation*}
U^{d y n}(\boldsymbol{u})=\int_{\Omega} \rho \ddot{\boldsymbol{u}} \cdot \boldsymbol{u} d \Omega \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the Implicit Newmark method for the implicit time integration and taking the first variation while holding the acceleration $\ddot{\boldsymbol{u}}$ constant, the residual takes the form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{R}^{d y n}=\left.\frac{\partial U^{d y n}\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}\right)}{\partial \boldsymbol{u}_{e}}\right|_{\ddot{\boldsymbol{u}}_{e}=\text { const. }}=\mathbf{M} \cdot\left[\frac{1}{\zeta \Delta t^{2}}\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{e, n+1}-\boldsymbol{u}_{e, n}\right)-\frac{1}{\zeta \Delta t} \dot{\boldsymbol{u}}_{e, n}-\left(\frac{1}{2 \zeta}-1\right) \ddot{\boldsymbol{u}}_{e, n}\right] \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

with the Newmark parameter $\zeta=1 / 4$. The second derivative of (9) yields then to the dynamic part of the tangent:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial^{2} U^{d y n}\left(\left.\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}\right|_{e}\right)}{\partial \boldsymbol{u}_{e}^{2}}=\mathbf{M} \cdot \frac{1}{\zeta \Delta t^{2}} \quad \text { with } \quad \mathbf{M}=\left(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\Pi}}^{\nabla}\right)^{T} \int_{\Omega} \rho \mathbf{H}^{T} \mathbf{H} d \Omega \tilde{\boldsymbol{\Pi}}^{\nabla} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, M denotes the mass-matrix, which is fully computed through the projection part. The constant matrix $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\Pi}}^{\nabla}$ represents the projection operator and defined in [5].

### 2.3 Construction of the Virtual Element

As already mentioned, the formulation of an elastodynamic virtual element is based on a split of the energy in to a projected part $U_{c}\left(\left.\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}\right|_{e}\right)$ and a stabilization part $U_{s t a b}\left(\left.\boldsymbol{u}_{h}\right|_{e}-\left.\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}\right|_{e}\right)$. The approximation of the projection part yields to a rank deficiency in the tangent and therefore needs to be stabilized. After summing up all element contributions for $\boldsymbol{n}_{e}$ elements, the total potential takes the form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
U(\boldsymbol{u})=\boldsymbol{A}_{e=1}^{n_{e}}\left[U_{c}\left(\left.\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}\right|_{e}\right)+U_{s t a b}\left(\left.\boldsymbol{u}_{h}\right|_{e}-\left.\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}\right|_{e}\right)\right] \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the projection part has the form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{c}\left(\left.\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}\right|_{e}\right)=\int_{\Omega_{e}}\left[\Psi\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}\right)-\overline{\boldsymbol{f}} \cdot \boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}\right] d \Omega-\int_{\Gamma_{e}^{N}} \overline{\boldsymbol{t}} \cdot \boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi} d \Gamma+\int_{\Omega_{e}} \rho \ddot{\boldsymbol{u}}_{\Pi} \cdot \boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi} d \Omega \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, $\Psi\left(\boldsymbol{u}_{\Pi}\right)$ is the Neo-Hookean strain energy function, $\overline{\boldsymbol{t}}$ the surface tractions and $\overline{\boldsymbol{f}}$ the body forces. The projection part can be simply evaluated at the element centroid, see [5,7]. The evaluation of the stabilization part can be realized through different methods. In this contribution, the stabilization part is computed on a submesh of 3 nodes triangles in 2D and 4 nodes tetrahedrons in 3D with linear shape functions, using the classical finite element method. For further details see [5, 7]. The final form of the tangent yields:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{e}}=\left(1-\beta^{\text {stat }}\right) \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{e}}{ }^{\text {stat }}+\left(1-\beta^{d y n}\right) \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{e}}{ }^{d y n}+\beta^{s t a t} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{s t a b}, \mathbf{e}}{ }^{\text {stat }}+\beta^{d y n} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{s t a b}, \mathbf{e}}{ }^{d y n}, \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\beta^{\text {stat }}$ and $\beta^{d y n}$ are fraction parameters for the static and dynamic part. For $\beta=1$ the tangent is obtained fully using the classical finite element method with linear shape functions. With $\beta=0$ the tangent is computed using the projection part and leads to a rank deficient tangent. For the stabilization parameter in this work we choose $\beta^{\text {stat }}=0.4$ and $\beta^{d y n}=0$, which means that the stiffness matrix is stabilized by $40 \%$ of the FEM solution and the mass matrix is computed without any stabilization.

## 3 Numerical examples

### 3.1 Cook's membrane problem (2D)

The first example is the Cook's membrane problem in 2D. The geometrical setup and boundary conditions can be taken from $1(\mathbf{a})$. In this test a force driven scenario is modeled, where the force is applied at the right edge as a line load as depicted in Figure 1(a). The force is applied as half-sine with a maximum amplitude $P_{\max }=10000 \mathrm{kN} / \mathrm{mm}$ at a time period of $T=0.0005 \mathrm{~s}$. The contour plots of the vertical displacement evolution for the deformation state $\{t=0.00065 s\}$ is sketched in Figure 1(d). Figure 3 shows a mesh refinement study with the element division of $2^{N}$ for $\mathrm{N}=2,4$ from $\mathbf{a}-\mathbf{b}$. The solution converges for higher mesh resolution, as shown in Figure 3(b). A comparison with FEM underlines the accuracy of the results and emphasizes that the results are in a very good agreement.


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Fig. 2: 2D Cook's membrane. Convergence Study - Displacement over time response for different element divisions $2^{N}$, with $N=2$ in (a) and $N=4$ in (b).


Fig. 3: 3D Example - (a) Displacement over time response and (b) undeformed and maximal deformed mesh.
be used successfully for the simulations. The computation of the mass-matrix was performed using the projection part and does not need any stabilization.

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