Influence of particle disorder and smoothing length on SPH operator accuracy

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Abstract—SPH consistency and different expression of SPH operators (gradient and Laplacian) accuracy are numerically investigated with regards to particle disorder and smoothing length on different particle distributions (2D and 3D Cartesian and 2D triangular). It is observed that particle disorder deteriorates SPH consistency and adds to the operators a diverging dependency on the smoothing length. Numerical tests evaluate the accuracy of the different operators on perturbed lattices, allowing to establish a rank in terms of robustness against particle disorder.

I. INTRODUCTION

SPH is known to loose consistency on perturbed lattices. Monaghan et al. [1] originally showed that the continuous SPH interpolation is second-order consistent, then Quinlan et al. [2] highlighted that applying SPH on perturbed lattices will induce an additional discretization error (of magnitude $o(h)$ or even divergent in $1/h$, $h$ being the smoothing length) that can be predominant, depending on the level of disorder and the ratio $\Delta x/h$, $\Delta x$ being the particle spacing.

To circumvent this problem, methods were derived to restore kernel consistency on perturbed lattices such as the Shepard correction, the Mixed Kernel Gradient (MKG) [3] or the RKPM methods [4]. However, exactly retrieving 0-order consistency nullifies a term (see Eq. (3) in [5]) which has a reordering role in simulation of fluids. To the authors knowledge, no robust solution is available to avoid the formation of holes in the lattice when nullifying the stabilizing term and, therefore, the use of correctors is limited to a small range of applications.

Alternatively, it is possible to estimate the error introduced by uncorrected SPH operators in case of particle disorder, and choose the most robust one. Souto-Iglesias et al. [6] highlighted the loss of accuracy of gradient and Laplacian operators on a perturbed lattice in Moving Particle Semi-implicit (MPS) method (related to SPH), and Antuono et al. [7] defined a measure of particle disorder and estimated its influence on the accuracy of one type of gradient expression.

The present work numerically studies the combined influence of particle disorder and smoothing length on SPH consistency and SPH operators (gradient and Laplacian) accuracy. Next, the paper describes the numerical setup, in particular, the canonical particle disorder. The consistency tests are conducted in the third part and the accuracy of gradient and Laplacian operator are investigated in the fourth and fifth part.

II. NUMERICAL TEST SETUP

A. Canonical particle disorder

A canonical particle disorder is defined in 2D (resp. in 3D) as a random shift of particles from their equilibrium state onto a circle (resp. a sphere) of radius $R = \eta \Delta x$, for $\eta \in [0, 0.5]$, where $\Delta x$ is the unperturbed particle interspacing (Fig. 1). The parameter $\theta$ is randomly drawn with an equiprobable distribution between 0 and $2\pi$ and in 3D an additional random parameter $\phi$ is drawn between 0 and $\pi$. The distribution of the normalized distance $d/\Delta x$ between two particles is depicted in Fig. 2 for 2D case. If $\eta$ is sufficiently low, $d/\Delta x$ depends on $\eta$ only. Its minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation are $1-2\eta$, $1+2\eta$, $1$ and $\approx \eta$ respectively.

B. SPH schemes and notations

In the present paper, subscripts $a$ and $b$ stand for the particle of interest and its neighbors respectively, and their distance is $r_{ab} = r_b - r_a$. The summation symbol always refers to a summation over particles belonging to the Sphere of Influence (SoI), and the quintic kernel $W(r_{ab}, h)$ is abbreviated to $W_{ab}$.

Since the method developed at ITS aims to simulate multiphase flows of high density ratio ($\approx 1000$), the use of traditional SPH operators based on a density approach...
would induce a strong diffusion near the interface over a thickness of the smoothing length. In order to circumvent this effect, operators are expressed with a volume approach that corresponds to the original SPH interpolation: \( \phi(x) = \int \phi(x') W(x' - x, h) \, dx' \) where \( \phi \) is a scalar field and \( dx' \) an infinitesimal volume. Therefore volume and density are expressed as:

\[
V_a = \frac{1}{m_a} \sum W_{ab} \quad (1)
\]

\[
\rho_a = m_a \sum W_{ab} \quad (2)
\]

where \( m_a \) stands for the particle mass. Equations (1) and (2) ensure that the variation of volume and density are just function of neighbors spacing and not of neighbors mass. The SPH method presented in this article is composed of two loops over particle interactions: first, volume and density are calculated using Eqs. (1) and (2) and second, acceleration terms are calculated with the particle volume \( V_a \) computed at the first step.

Solid boundaries are taken into account through layers of stationary wall particles that avoid to truncate the support volume of wall-adjacent fluid particles. Volume and density of wall particles are also computed by Eq. (1) and (2).

C. Test grids

Tests are conducted in 2D (resp. 3D) with particle distribution forming a square (resp. cubic) domain of side length \( L \). The domain is composed of three types of particles as depicted in Fig. 3: (i) unperturbed wall particles with incomplete SoI (\( J_1 \)), forming a layer of \( 4h \), (ii) outer perturbed particles with complete SoI (\( J_2 \)) but influenced by wall particles, over a layer of \( 4h \) and (iii) inner perturbed particles with complete SoI made only of fluid particles. Numerical tests are conducted on inner particles only, to avoid any deviation due to the influence of wall particles on outer particles. Particle disorder is studied by setting the parameter \( \eta \) to: \( 10^{-4}, 5 \times 10^{-4}, 2.5 \times 10^{-3}, 1.25 \times 10^{-2}, 6.25 \times 10^{-2} \) and 0.3215, as illustrated in Fig. 3.

Two types of lattice are investigated: (i) a cartesian lattice that forms squares in 2D and cubes in 3D, and (ii) a triangular lattice generating equilateral triangles in 2D. The triangular lattice in 3D was not tested due to a tremendously large number of neighbors (\( \approx 350 \)) that is prohibitive in engineering applications. The average number of neighbors is 29, 37 and 123 for 2D Cartesian, 2D triangular and 3D Cartesian, respectively.

As the ratio \( h/\Delta x \) is kept equal to 1.05, the smoothing length influence is studied by varying the particle interspacing \( \Delta x \). For consistency tests, the number of particles is kept constant whereas, in the operator tests, \( L \) is kept constant, so that the number of particle increases when \( \Delta x \) decreases. The latter method therefore checks the consistency of SPH operators \( \partial_{\text{SPH}} \) in the sense of estimating the residual \( \Psi \):

\[
\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \left| \partial_{\text{SPH}}(\Delta x) - \partial_{\text{ANALYTICAL}} \right| = \Psi \quad (3)
\]

Finally, the tests are conducted using several grids with the same geometric parameters, in order to keep the total number of data points \( N_{\text{grid}} \times N_{\text{inner}} \) constant and thus preserve the statistical quality.

III. EVALUATION OF CONSISTENCIES

A. Definition

Consistency is detailed here as the capacity of the method to recover the \( j \)-th derivative of a \( i \)-th order polynomial and it is labeled \( C_i^j \). Please note that retrieving a polynomial does not guarantee that its derivative is also recovered. Therefore it is mandatory to check the consistency of polynomial derivative. The first four consistency condition are \( C_0^0 \), \( C_0^1 \), \( C_1^1 \) and \( C_1^1 \), and their SPH expression are written as:

\[
\sum V_b W_{ab} = 1 \quad (4)
\]

\[
\sum V_b \nabla W_{ab} = 0 \quad (5)
\]

\[
\sum V_b r_{ab} W_{ab} = 0 \quad (6)
\]

\[
\sum V_b r_b \otimes \nabla W_{ab} = I \quad (7)
\]

where \( \nabla \), \( \otimes \) and \( I \) are the gradient operator, the tensor product and the identity matrix respectively. Fulfilling Eqs. (4) to (7) ensure that at best, SPH can exactly reproduce a linear function and its first derivative.
### B. Error functions

Each consistency condition $C^1_i$ is quantified by a local error function $\varepsilon^1_i$ at particle $a$, defined by a L2 norm of the consistency deviation from ideal case:

\[
\varepsilon^0_{0,a} = \left( \sum V_b W_{ab} - 1 \right)^2
\]

(8)

\[
\varepsilon^1_{0,a} = \left[ \sum V_b \nabla W_{ab} - 0 \right]^2 \times h^2
\]

(9)

\[
\varepsilon^0_{1,a} = \left( \sum V_b r_{ab} W_{ab} - 0 \right)^2 \times \frac{1}{h^2}
\]

(10)

\[
\varepsilon^1_{1,a} = \left( \sum V_b r_{ab} \nabla W_{ab} - \mathbb{I} \right)^2
\]

(11)

where $||x||^2$ and $||X||^2$ represent respectively the magnitude of vector $x$ and an Hilbert-Schmidt operator of the matrix $X$ of size $n \times n$:

\[
||X||^2 = \sum_{(i,j) \in (0,n)^2} |x_{i,j}|^2
\]

(12)

Functions $\varepsilon^j_i$ are then equal to zero when consistency is perfectly fulfilled, and increases when lacking consistency. Equations (9) and (10) were multiplied or divided by $h^2$ to recover a non-dimensional error. The overall errors $E^j_i$ are the square root of averaged error functions over inner particles and grid:

\[
E^j_i = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{j} \mathbb{E} \times N_{inner}}
\]

(13)

### C. Results

1) Scaling with $h$: When particles are regularly spaced ($\eta = 0$), all $E^j_i$ are equal to $10^{-20}$ for all numerical setups, ensuring that the four consistencies are retrieved. Figure 4 displays $E^j_i$ versus $h$ for the maximum disorder $\eta = 0.3215$, and shows significant errors independent of $h$. As $E^0_i$ and $E^1_i$ follow the same trend as the one of $E^0_i$, they are not displayed for the sake of clarity.

Since $E^0_i$ and $E^1_i$ are not normalized by $h$, reducing $h$ does not allow to fulfill $C^1_0$ and $C^1_1$, and the error remains constant. $E^0_i$ is divided by $h$ so that $C^1_0$ is recovered for $h \rightarrow 0$. The worse behavior is attributed to $E^1_i$ that shows a multiplication by $h$, leading to a consistency error scaling as $1/h$ and thus diverging for $h \rightarrow 0$, as pointed out by Quinlan et al. [2]. Finally $E^1_i$ is larger than the other errors, suggesting that $C^1_1$ is more sensitive to particle disorder.

2) Scaling with $\eta$: Evolution of $E^0_i$ and $E^1_i$ versus $\eta$ is presented in Fig. 5 with $h = 1 \mu$m and present a trend which is proportional to $\eta$. Errors $E^0_i$ (so as $E^1_i$) are the same in 2D for cartesian and triangular lattice and slightly smaller for the 3D cartesian case, probably due to a larger number of neighbors. $E^1_i$ is again larger than the other and confirms that $C^1_1$ is more difficult to obtain.

### D. Conclusion of consistency estimation

The four first consistency conditions are always retrieved on regular lattices whereas none of them is perfectly fulfilled on perturbed lattices, and their deviation shows a linear dependence on the canonical disorder $\eta$, the largest being $C^1_1$. When decreasing $h$ to zero, $C^0_0$ is recovered while $C^0_1$ and $C^1_0$ show a constant deviation and $C^1_1$ diverges. This last point is a serious limitation of SPH when simulating small configurations and performing convergence tests.

### IV. EVALUATION OF GRADIENTS

The evaluation of accurate representation of the gradient is conducted by keeping the domain size constant and by decreasing the smoothing length $h$, corresponding to increasing the number of discretization points. As the behavior of a realistic experiment does not depend on any mesh size, the normalization scale used in this part is the size $L$ of the domain and not $h$.

#### A. Types of gradient

Three gradients $G_0$, $G_+$ and $G_-$ are evaluated in this work, following a volume approach:

\[
G_0 : \phi_a \rightarrow \nabla_0 \phi_a = \sum V_b \phi_b \nabla W_{ab}
\]

(14)

\[
G_+ : \phi_a \rightarrow \nabla_+ \phi_a = \sum V_b (\phi_b + \phi_a) \nabla W_{ab}
\]

(15)

\[
G_- : \phi_a \rightarrow \nabla_- \phi_a = \sum V_b (\phi_b - \phi_a) \nabla W_{ab}
\]

(16)

$G_0$ correspond to the canonical expression of the gradient in SPH and is directly derived by an integration by parts of the fundamental SPH equation (Eq. 4). The purpose of $G_+$ is to conserve linear momentum locally by ensuring $\mathbf{f}_{ab} = -\mathbf{f}_{ba}$ where $\mathbf{f}_{ab}$ is the elemental force that particle $b$ exerts on particle $a$. For instance, in the case of the pressure force,
\[ f_{ab}^{(p)} = V_a V_b (p_b + p_a) \nabla W_{ab} \] and \[ f_{ab}^{(p)} = -f_{ba}^{(p)}. \] \( G_\sigma \) is constructed to ensure that the gradient of a constant function is zero, even if \( C_0^1 \) is not verified. Note that \( G_- \) and \( G_0 \) do not locally conserve linear momentum.

**B. Role of \( C_0^1 \) in gradient estimation**

Writing the gradient operators \( (G_K) \) in a general form
\[
\nabla_K \phi_a = \sum V_b (\phi_b + K \phi_a) \nabla W_{ab} \] leads to:

\[
\nabla_K \phi_a = \sum V_b \phi_b \nabla W_{ab} + K \phi_a \sum V_b \nabla W_{ab} \quad (17)
\]
The first term of the RHS of Eq. 17 is the canonical gradient and the second term shows the \( C_0^1 \) condition. It suggests that when \( C_0^1 \) is not fulfilled, the three gradients are not identical and the deviation from \( G_0 \) is proportional to \( \phi_a \) for \( \nabla_+ \phi_a \) and \( \nabla_- \phi_a \). In addition, when considering a constant field \( F_0 \), the gradients \( \nabla_0 F_0 \) and \( \nabla_+ F_0 \) are explicitly:

\[
\nabla_0 F_0 = F_0 \sum V_b \nabla W_{ab} \quad (18)
\]
\[
\nabla_+ F_0 = 2 F_0 \sum V_b \nabla W_{ab} \quad (19)
\]

which shows that (i) \( G_0 \) and \( G_+ \), cannot predict a zero gradient for a constant field when \( C_0^1 \) is not fulfilled and (ii) \( G_- \) is two times more sensitive to the \( C_0^1 \) condition than \( G_0 \) due to the factor 2 in Eq. (19).

**C. Types of fields**

The three studied scalar fields are constant \( (F_0) \), linear \( (F_1) \) and quadratic \( (F_2) \) with the following expressions:

\[
F_0(x) = K_x \\
F_1(x) = K_x \xi \\
F_2(x) = K_x \xi^2/2
\] (20)

so that \( K_x \) is the value, the normalized slopes and normalized curvatures for \( F_0, F_1 \) and \( F_2 \), respectively, and \( \xi = x/L \) the normalized \( x \) coordinate. To study the gradient intensity \( K_x \) was varied over the following values: 0.01, 0.1, 1, 10 and 100.

**D. Error functions**

The deviation between SPH gradients and analytical ones is measured through the local non-dimensional error:

\[
\Lambda_{K_x}^0 (G_K) = \frac{1}{N_i} \left( \nabla_{K_x} F_i - \frac{\partial F_i}{\partial x_j} \right)^2
\] (23)

where \( \nabla_{K_x} \) stands for the \( x_j \) component of \( G_K \). The term \( N_i \) is a normalization factor equal to \( K_x/L \) for the constant field \( F_0 \) and to the magnitude of the analytical gradient for the two other fields. Note that all \( \partial F_i/\partial x_j \) are zero, except:

\[
\frac{\partial F_1}{\partial x} = \frac{K_x}{L}, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial F_2}{\partial x} = \frac{K_x x}{L^2}
\] (24)

Like for the consistency study, the global error \( \Lambda_{K_x}^0 (G_K) \) is determined by summing over inner particles and grids (Eq. 13).

**E. Results**

1) **Influence of lattice:** As illustrated in Fig. 6, all investigated lattices (2D cartesian, 2D triangular and 3D cartesian) have the same trends. 2D cases have very similar errors and 3D cases show generally errors \( \approx 15\% \) lower than 2D cases. This is possibly due to a larger number of neighbors that reduces the smoothing length error. Based on these observations, the next figures will display results of 2D Cartesian lattices only.

2) **Directivity:** Although the investigated gradients are only oriented towards \( x \) (\( \partial F_1/\partial y = \partial F_1/\partial z = 0 \)), it is observed that \( K_x \) influences \( \Lambda^y_x \) and \( \Lambda^+_y \), so that deviation is the same in the three dimensions, as illustrated in Fig. 7. This effect is due to the isotropic essence of the kernel that homogeneously redistributes the error into other dimensions. This observation implies that the direction of the gradient is influenced by particle disorder, and could not distinguish different order of magnitudes along different axis, (e.g. the gradient of the function \( f(x, y) = 1000 x + y \) could not exhibit a dependence on \( y \) due to the noise on the \( x \) component).

3) **Constant field:** Figure 8 displays \( \Lambda^h_x \) versus \( h, \eta \) and \( K_x \). When \( \eta = 0 \), all operators show no deviation (Fig. 8(b)). For \( \eta \neq 0 \), error is proportional to \( h \), and proportional to \( \eta \). Surprisingly \( \Lambda^0_x \) slightly decreases when \( K_x \) increases (Fig. 8(c)) whereas Eqs. (18) and (19) predict no dependence on \( K_x \) (\( \equiv F_0 \)) as the error is normalized by \( K_x \). This may be explained by the fact that lower \( K_x \) are more sensible to floating point truncation error. As expected, the deviation of \( G_+ \) is twice larger than the one of \( G_0 \), and since \( G_- \) exactly predicts the zero gradient, it is not plotted.

The error is expressed as a function of \( h, \eta \) and \( K_x \) under the form \( \Lambda^0_x (h, \eta, K_x) = a_1 h^{a_2} \eta^{a_3} K_x^{a_4} \) and \((a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4)\) is fitted over all cases, leading to:

\[
\Lambda^0_x (G_0) = 3.12 \times 10^{-3} \eta^{0.985} K_x^{-0.0857}
\] (25)

\[
\Lambda^0_x (G_+) = 6.11 \times 10^{-3} h^{-1.04} K_x^{-0.0848}
\] (26)

Equations (25) and (26) indicate an acceptable proportionality to the term \( \eta/h \) and a weak dependence on \( K_x \), and confirm
the factor 2 between $G_+$ and $G_0$.

4) Linear field: The residual $\Lambda^1_x$ is plotted in Fig. 9 versus $h$, $\eta$ and $K_x$. Fitting the errors with $h$, $\eta$ and $K_x$ leads to:

$$\Lambda^1_x(G_0) = 4.36 \times 10^{-3} h^{-0.941} \eta^{0.988} K_x^{-0.0847}$$  \hspace{1cm} (27)
$$\Lambda^1_x(G_+) = 9.12 \times 10^{-3} h^{-0.936} \eta^{0.989} K_x^{-0.0854}$$  \hspace{1cm} (28)
$$\Lambda^1_x(G_-) = 1.70 \times 10^{-1} h^{-0.0406} \eta^{1.15} K_x^{-0.0903}$$  \hspace{1cm} (29)

Figure 9 and Eqs. (27) to (29) show the same trends as with the constant field: the error is approximately proportional to $\eta/h$ for $G_0$ and $G_+$. Surprisingly, $G_-$ behaves much better that the two other as it presents (i) no influence of $h$ and (ii) non-zero deviations only for large particle disorder or strong gradients.

5) Quadratic field: Errors $\Lambda^2_x$ are displayed in Fig. 10. The same trends as for a linear field with slightly lower error values are found. As for the case of constant field, $G_+$ errors are two times larger than $G_0$: $\Lambda^2_x(G_+) \approx 2 \cdot \Lambda^2_x(G_0)$.

F. Conclusion of gradient estimation

The operator $G_+$ shows the largest error which is twice as large as the one of $G_0$. This is probably due to sign “+” in Eq. (15) that sums errors on $\phi_a$ and $\phi_b$. The operator $G_-$ shows the lowest relative deviation and a low dependence on the smoothing length $h$. From a numerical point of view, it is the best to use. However it does not locally conserve linear momentum, and a more detailed study is necessary to estimate if this drawback outweighs the benefits retrieved from its superiority regarding particle disorder.

V. EVALUATION OF LAPLACIANS

A. Types of Laplacian

1) MCG: The Laplacian proposed by [8] and [9] is referred to as MCG and is given by:

$$\Delta_{MCG}(\mathbf{u})_a = \frac{2}{\pi} (d + 2) \sum_{b} V_b \frac{r_{ab}}{r_{ab}^2 + \theta^2} \nabla W_{ab}$$  \hspace{1cm} (30)

where $d$ and $\theta = 0.01 h^2$ are the dimension and a term to avoid a zero denominator, respectively. The term $r_{ab} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{ab}$ is the scalar product between particle positions $r_{ab} = \mathbf{r}_b - \mathbf{r}_a$ and particle velocities $\mathbf{v}_{ab} = \mathbf{v}_b - \mathbf{v}_a$. The prefactor $1/\pi$ was not in the original formulation but is added in the present work to match the analytical Laplacian. As $\Delta_{MCG}(\mathbf{u})_a$ is oriented along the inter-particle axis, its stress force is axial.
and the local angular momentum is conserved.

2) MEA: This Laplacian estimation, labeled MEA, was proposed by [10] and [11]:
\[
\Delta_{MEA}(u)_a = 2 \sum V_b \nabla W_{ab} \cdot \mathbf{r}_{ab} \mathbf{v}_{ab}
\]
(31)
It is oriented along the velocity difference \( \mathbf{v}_{ab} \) so that angular momentum is not locally conserved.

B. Type of fields

As the most important role of the Laplacian is to model viscous stress based on the second derivative of the velocity, it is applied here to a vector field. Investigated fields are the same as for gradients investigation (Eqs. 20 to 22) but applied to the \( x \) component of the velocity:
\[
\begin{align*}
U_0(x) &= (K_x, 0, 0) \\
U_1(x) &= (K_x \xi, 0, 0) \\
U_2(x) &= (K_x \xi^2/2, 0, 0)
\end{align*}
\]
(32) \hspace{1cm} (33) \hspace{1cm} (34)
The Laplacian thus corresponds to a second derivative with respect to \( x \).

C. Error function

The general error function is defined as:
\[
\omega^2_{x_j}(\Delta_{\mathcal{L}}) = \frac{1}{N^2} \left( \Delta_{\mathcal{L},x_j} U_i - \sum_{k} \frac{\partial^2 U_{i,x_j}}{\partial x_k^2} \right)^2
\]
(35)
where \( \Delta_{\mathcal{L},x_j} \) is the \( x_j \) component of the Laplacian \( \mathcal{L} \) (MCG or MEA). The analytical Laplacian (right term in parenthesis) is equal to \( \partial^2 U_{i,x_j}/\partial x^2 \) when \( x_j = x_k = x \) and is zero otherwise, and the normalization factor \( N \) is equal to \( K_x/L^2 \). The global error \( \Omega \) is calculated according to Eq. (13).

D. Results

1) Type of lattice: Trends are the same on 2D Cartesian and 2D triangular lattices with linear fields. With quadratic fields, MCG shows a higher deviation on triangular lattices compared to Cartesian ones (Fig. 11(a)). The same finding are valid for the comparison of 2D/3D Cartesian configurations, although 3D lattices show approximately an error 20% lower than 2D ones, as shown in Fig. 11(b).

2) Directivity: A comparison between \( \Omega^2_{x_i} \) and \( \Omega^2_{y_i} \) versus \( K_x \) is displayed in Fig. 12. It shows that for MCG, both direction have same trends with the same order of magnitude, whereas the MEA operator shows zero deviation on its \( y \) component: \( \Omega^2_{y_i}(\Delta_{MEA}) = 0 \). This can be explained by the
The fact that $\Delta_{\text{MEA}}$ is oriented along $v_{ab}$ (Eq. 31) so that a zero component for the velocity induces a zero component for the Laplacian. This characteristic of the MEA operator thus ensures that the inaccuracy due to particle disorder is kept along $v_{ab}$ and is not diffused in other dimensions, leading to a better resolution of the operator directivity.

3) Constant field: Due to the presence of the term $v_{ab}$ in both expressions, the SPH Laplacian of a constant field is always zero, independently of the smoothing length, particle disorder or the field absolute value.

4) Linear field: As depicted in Fig. 13, both Laplacian operators follow the same trends as gradients operators for each investigated parameters: they are proportional to $\eta/h$ and slightly decrease with $K_x$. Fitting $\Omega_2^l$ with the expression $\Omega_2^l(h, \eta, K_x) = a_1 h^{\eta_2} \eta^{\eta_3} K_x^{\eta_4}$ leads to:

$$\Omega_2^l(MCG) = 8.89 \times 10^{-3} h^{-1.01} \eta^{0.979} K_x^{-0.0844}$$
$$\Omega_2^l(MEA) = 6.07 \times 10^{-3} h^{-1.03} \eta^{0.986} K_x^{-0.0849}$$

which confirms the proportionality to $\eta/h$ and low influence of $K_x$. In addition, it shows an error for the MEA operator to be 18% lower than for MCG, which is visible in Figs. 13 for any of the investigated parameters. Finally, no disorder induces an exact prediction of the Laplacian for both operators.

5) Quadratic field: Figures 14 display $\Omega^2_e$ versus $h$, $\eta$ and $K_x$ and show that MEA and MCG have the same trends. Proportionality to $1/h$ is lost for a strong disorder, and linearity with $\eta$ is lost for low disorder. In particular, both operators are not exact on regular lattices (Fig. 14(b)). Regarding $K_x$, a slight decrease is observed when $K_x$ increases. Finally, MEA behaves slightly better with a global error 17% lower than MCG.

E. Conclusion of Laplacian estimation

Both operator present the same trends with regards to investigated parameters and, contrary to gradients, there is no clear advantages for MCG or MEA. On 2D Cartesian lattices with linear and quadratic fields, MEA shows an error $\approx$ 20% lower than MCG for all investigated parameters. On 2D Triangular lattices (no curves shown here) and linear fields, MEA and MCG deliver the same error, whereas MCG gives higher errors on low to moderate particle disorder ($0 \leq \eta < 10^{-2}$) with quadratic fields.

VI. CONCLUSION

SPH consistency was studied versus the particle disorder $\eta$, the smoothing length $h$, with a constant $h/\Delta x$ ratio. On a a regular lattice, the four first consistency conditions ($C_0^0$, $C_0^1$, $C_1^0$ and $C_1^1$) are fulfilled and independent of $h$. On the contrary, perturbed lattices bring more complexity: the deviation of consistency conditions (i) increases with particle disorder and (ii) depends on the smoothing length with different behavior depending on the consistency condition. It is indeed observed that $C_0^0$ and $C_1^1$ are independent of $h$ while $C_0^1$ is proportional to $h$ and $C_1^0$ diverges with $1/h$, which may be critical.
when simulating small configurations. The importance of $C_0^1$ condition for gradients calculation was also highlighted.

SPH operators accuracy (gradient and Laplacian) were also studied versus $\eta$, $h$ and the non-dimensional parameter $K_x$ corresponding to a field magnitude, slope or curvature. The operator $G_-$ showed the best behavior with (i) an error of two orders of magnitude lower than $G_0$ and $G_+$, and (ii) a low dependency on $h$. Regarding the Laplacian, both operators, MEA and MCG show the same trends with a little advantage for MEA whose error function is generally 30% lower than MCG one. These considerations are purely numerical and should be completed by a physical study: given that $G_-$ and MEA do not locally conserve the linear and angular momentum respectively, it must be confirmed that their numerical advantages are still significant with regards to physical considerations.

Finally, different particle distributions were investigated (2D and 3D Cartesian and 2D triangular) and the same trends were observed.

REFERENCES