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# Numerical simulation of heat transfer in materials with anisotropic thermal conductivity: A finite volume scheme to handle complex geometries

Jürgen Geiser<sup>1</sup>, Olaf Klein<sup>1</sup> and Peter Philip<sup>2</sup>

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- Institute for Mathematics and its Applications (IMA)
  University of Minnesota
  400 Lind Hall
  207 Church Street S.E.
  Minneapolis, MN 55455-0436
  USA
  E-Mail: philip@ima.umn.edu



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Edited by Weierstraß-Institut für Angewandte Analysis und Stochastik (WIAS) Mohrenstraße 39 10117 Berlin Germany

Fax:  $+ 49 \ 30 \ 2044975$ 

E-Mail: preprint@wias-berlin.de World Wide Web: http://www.wias-berlin.de/

#### Abstract

We devise a finite volume scheme for nonlinear heat transfer in materials with anisotropic thermal conductivity. We focus on the difficulties arising from the discretization of complex domains which are typical in the simulation of industrially relevant processes. For polyhedral domains in two dimensions, we consider Cartesian as well as cylindrical coordinates. Our finite volume scheme is based on unstructured constrained Delaunay triangulations of the domain. For simplicity, we assume that the thermal conductivity tensor has vanishing off-diagonal entries and that the anisotropy is independent of the temperature. We present numerical simulations, verifying our finite volume scheme in cases where a closed-form solution is available. Further results demonstrate the effectiveness of the method in computing the heat transfer in a complex growth apparatus used in crystal growth.

# 1 Introduction

Modeling and numerical simulation of heat transfer in complex apparatus have become powerful tools in aiding the design and optimization of numerous industrial processes such as crystal growth by the Czochralski method [DNR+90] and by the physical vapor transport (PVT) method [KPS04] to mention just two examples. For materials with isotropic thermal conductivity, standard techniques are available, including the finite element method [CL91] (used in [DNR+90]) and the finite volume method [EGH00] (used in [KPS04]). The extension of such standard methods to materials with anisotropic thermal conductivity can be straightforward for simple geometries (e.g. if the geometry admits a discretization into a structured grid of rectangles or parallelepipeds). However, the treatment of anisotropic materials within complex geometries as they are typical in industrial applications such as crystal growth (see Fig. 1) is generally much more involved. To the authors' knowledge, even for two-dimensional domains, all the methods previously described in the literature are restricted to simple classes of domains, need to be adapted to fit the type of anisotropy, or show instabilities for strongly anisotropic materials (see, e.g., [ABB98a, ABB98b, BV03, Fai91] and [EGH00, Sec. 11]).

Our goal is the formulation of a finite volume scheme that applies to apparatus geometries such as the one depicted in Fig. 1, consisting of several different material domains, some of which have anisotropic thermal conductivity. The scheme should be stable and accurate for any two-dimensional polyhedral domain discretized into a constrained Delaunay triangulation (see Sec. 3.1) such as provided by the grid generator Triangle [She96]. The scheme devised in our present article has the advantage of yielding accurate results without any further requirements with respect to the grid, even for very large anisotropy factors (in Sec. 4.3 we present numerical results for the domain of Fig. 1, where, in  $\Omega_1$ , the material's thermal conductivity in the horizontal direction is 1000 times larger than in the vertical direction).

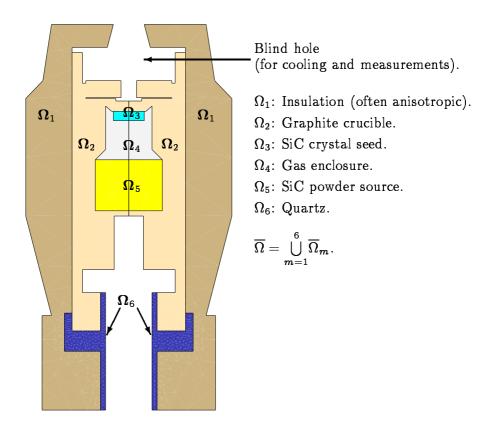


Figure 1: Axisymmetric domain representing a growth apparatus used in silicon carbide single crystal growth by physical vapor transport (PVT). The geometry is a modified version of [SSP04, Fig. 4].

We consider general two-dimensional polyhedral domains in both Cartesian and cylindrical coordinates (see Assumption (A-1) below). We will first develop the discretization in Cartesian coordinates, subsequently describing the necessary modifications for the case that the two-dimensional domain constitutes the circular projection of an axisymmetric domain in cylindrical coordinates (see Sec. 3.6). According to our aforementioned goals, in order to have the flexibility to discretize general polyhedral domains, we found our finite volume scheme on an unstructured constrained Delaunay triangulation (see Assumptions (DA-1) and (DA-3) in Sec. 3.1 below).

The paper is organized as follows: The mathematical model is stated in Sec. 2, the finite volume discretization is described in Sec. 3, followed by the presentation and discussion of numerical results in Sec. 4. The discretization in Sec. 3 is first carried out in Cartesian coordinates, the heart being the treatment of the anisotropic terms in Sec. 3.3. In Sec. 3.6, we describe the modification in the case of cylindrical coordinates. Section 4 is divided into three subsections: The tools used in the implementation are the contents of 4.1, the comparison of our numerical results with closed-form solutions is found in 4.2, and, in 4.3, we report on numerical results for the complex geometry of Fig. 1.

# 2 Mathematical model

Stationary heat conduction in potentially anisotropic materials is described by (see, e.g., [For01]):

$$-\operatorname{div}(K_m(\theta) \nabla \theta) = f_m \quad \text{in } \Omega_m \qquad (m \in M), \tag{2.1}$$

where  $\theta \geq 0$  represents absolute temperature, the symmetric and positive definite matrix  $K_m$  represents the thermal conductivity tensor in material m,  $f_m \geq 0$  represents heat sources in material m due to some heating mechanism, e.g. induction or resistance heating,  $\Omega_m$  is the domain of material m, and M is a finite index set. We consider the case where the thermal conductivity tensor is a diagonal matrix with temperature-independent anisotropy, i.e.

$$K_{m}(\theta) = \left(\kappa_{i,j}^{m}(\theta)\right), \quad \text{where} \quad \kappa_{i,j}^{m}(\theta) = \begin{cases} \alpha_{i}^{m} \, \kappa_{iso}^{m}(\theta) & \text{for } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{for } i \neq j, \end{cases}$$
 (2.2)

 $\kappa_{iso}^m(\theta) > 0$  being the potentially temperature-dependent thermal conductivity of the isotropic case, and  $\alpha_i^m > 0$  being anisotropy coefficients. For example, the growth apparatus used in silicon carbide single crystal growth by PVT are usually insulated by graphite felt, where the fibers are aligned in one particular direction, resulting in a thermal conductivity tensor of the form (2.2). We apply the finite volume scheme developed in the present paper to numerically investigate the influence of the anisotropy in the thermal insulation of PVT growth apparatus in [GKP05].

Throughout this paper, we make the following assumptions on the material domains  $\Omega_m$ :

(A-1)  $\overline{\Omega} = \bigcup_{m \in M} \overline{\Omega}_m$ ,  $\Omega_{m_1} \cap \Omega_{m_2} = \emptyset$  for each  $(m_1, m_2) \in M^2$  such that  $m_1 \neq m_2$ , and each of the sets  $\Omega$ ,  $\Omega_m$ ,  $m \in M$ , is a nonvoid, connected, polyhedral, bounded, and open subset of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

The temperature  $\theta$  is assumed to be continuous throughout the entire domain  $\overline{\Omega}$ . Continuity of the normal component of the heat flux on the interface between different materials  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ ,  $m_1 \neq m_2$ , yields the following interface conditions, coupling the heat equations (2.1):

$$(K_{m_1}(\theta) \nabla \theta)|_{\overline{\Omega}_{m_1}} \bullet \mathbf{n}_{m_1} = (K_{m_2}(\theta) \nabla \theta)|_{\overline{\Omega}_{m_2}} \bullet \mathbf{n}_{m_1} \quad \text{on } \overline{\Omega}_{m_1} \cap \overline{\Omega}_{m_2}, \tag{2.3}$$

where  $\uparrow$  denotes restriction, and  $\mathbf{n}_{m_1}$  denotes the unit normal vector pointing from material  $m_1$  to material  $m_2$ .

We consider two types of outer boundary conditions, namely Dirichlet and Robin conditions. To that end, we decompose  $\partial\Omega$  according to (A-2):

(A-2) Let  $\Gamma_{Dir}$  and  $\Gamma_{Rob}$  be relatively open polyhedral subsets of  $\partial\Omega$  such that  $\partial\Omega=\overline{\Gamma}_{Dir}\cup\overline{\Gamma}_{Rob},\ \Gamma_{Dir}\cup\Gamma_{Rob}=\emptyset.$ 

The boundary conditions then read

$$\theta = \theta_{\rm Dir}$$
 on  $\overline{\Gamma}_{\rm Dir}$ , (2.4a)

$$\theta = \theta_{\text{Dir}} \qquad \text{on } \overline{\Gamma}_{\text{Dir}}, \qquad (2.4a)$$

$$-(K_m(\theta) \nabla \theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_m = \xi_m (\theta - \theta_{\text{ext},m}) \qquad \text{a.e. on } \Gamma_{\text{Rob}} \cap \partial \Omega_m, m \in M, \qquad (2.4b)$$

where  $\mathbf{n}_m$  is the outer unit normal to  $\Omega_m$ ,  $\theta_{\mathrm{Dir}} \geq 0$  is the given temperature on  $\Gamma_{\mathrm{Dir}}$ ,  $\theta_{\text{ext},m} \geq 0$  is the given external temperature ambient to  $\Gamma_{\text{Rob}} \cap \partial \Omega_m$ , and  $\xi_m > 0$  is a transition coefficient.

We restrict ourselves to the simple interface and boundary conditions (2.3) and (2.4), respectively, since they suffice for our purpose of formulating and numerically verifying a finite volume scheme in situations with anisotropic thermal conductivity. For the isotropic case, many different interface and boundary conditions are considered in the finite volume schemes treated in [EGH00]. For finite volume schemes with nonlocal interface and boundary conditions due to diffuse-gray radiation between cavity surfaces, which are particularly relevant to high-temperature crystal growth applications, we refer to [Phi03, KP05].

In the case of transient heat conduction, the time derivative  $\frac{\partial \varepsilon_m(\theta)}{\partial t}$  must be added in (2.1), where  $\varepsilon_m$  represents the internal energy of the respective material, and  $\theta$ and  $f_m$ , in general, depend on time t. Since time dependence is decoupled from the anisotropy issues considered in this paper, we restrict ourselves to the stationary case. Extending the scheme to the transient case can be accomplished in the usual way, see, e.g. [EGH00, Ch. IV], [FL01, KP05].

#### 3 Finite volume discretization

#### 3.1 Discretization of the domains

Using a constrained Delaunay triangulation to discretize polyhedral domains, followed by a Voronoï construction to define finite volumes, is a well-known procedure (see [FL01, Sec. 3.2] and references therein). Here, we briefly review some definitions and properties that are subsequently used in the formulation of the finite volume scheme for the anisotropic case.

Following [FL01, Sec. 3.2], an admissible discretization of material domain  $\Omega_m$ ,  $m \in M$ , consists of a finite family  $\Sigma_m := (\sigma_{m,i})_{i \in I_m}$  of subsets of  $\Omega_m$  satisfying a number of assumptions, subsequently denoted by (DA-\*).

**Notation 3.1.** For  $d \in \{1, 2\}$ , let  $\lambda_d$  denote d-dimensional Lebesgue measure.

(DA-1) For each  $m \in M$ ,  $\Sigma_m = (\sigma_{m,i})_{i \in I_m}$  forms a finite conforming triangulation of  $\Omega_m$ . In particular, for each  $i \in I_m$ ,  $\sigma_{m,i}$  is an open triangle. Moreover, letting  $I := \bigcup_{m \in M} I_m$ ,  $\Sigma := (\sigma_i)_{i \in I}$  forms a conforming triangulation of  $\Omega$ .

(DA-2) For each  $m \in M$ , the triangulation  $\Sigma_m = (\sigma_{m,i})_{i \in I_m}$  respects  $\Gamma_{\text{Dir}}$  and  $\Gamma_{\text{Rob}}$  in the sense that, for each  $i \in I_m$ , either  $\lambda_1(\Gamma_{\text{Dir}} \cap \partial \sigma_{m,i}) = 0$  or  $\lambda_1(\Gamma_{\text{Rob}} \cap \partial \sigma_{m,i}) = 0$ .

For each  $\sigma_{m,i}$ , let  $V(\sigma_{m,i}) = \{v_{i,j}^m : j \in \{1,2,3\}\}$  denote the set of vertices of  $\sigma_{m,i}$ , and let  $V := \bigcup_{m \in M, i \in I_m} V(\sigma_{m,i})$  be the set of all vertices in the triangulation. One can then define the control volumes as the Voronoï cells with respect to the vertices. Using  $\|\cdot\|_2$  to denote Euclidean distance, define

for all 
$$v \in V$$
:  $\omega_v := \{x \in \Omega : \|x - v\|_2 < \|x - z\|_2 \text{ for each } z \in V \setminus \{v\}\},$ 

$$(3.1a)$$

for all 
$$m \in M$$
:  $\omega_{m,v} := \omega_v \cap \Omega_m$ ,  $V_m := \{ z \in V : \omega_{m,z} \neq \emptyset \}$ . (3.1b)

Letting  $\mathcal{T} := (\omega_v)_{v \in V}$ ,  $\mathcal{T}_m := (\omega_{m,v})_{v \in V_m}$ ,  $m \in M$ ,  $\mathcal{T}$  forms a partition of  $\Omega$ , and  $\mathcal{T}_m$  forms a partition of  $\Omega_m$ .

Remark 3.2. Since  $\mathcal{T}$  is a Voronoï discretization, each intersection  $\partial \omega_v \cap \partial \omega_z$ ,  $(v,z) \in V^2$ ,  $v \neq z$ , is contained in the set  $\{x \in \Omega : \|v-x\|_2 = \|z-x\|_2\}$ . In particular,  $\frac{z-v}{\|z-v\|_2} = \mathbf{n}_{\omega_v} \upharpoonright_{\partial_{\text{reg}}\omega_v \cap \partial_{\text{reg}}\omega_z}$ , where  $\partial_{\text{reg}}$  denotes the regular boundary of a polyhedral set, i.e. the points of the boundary, where a unique outer unit normal vector exists,  $\partial_{\text{reg}}\emptyset := \emptyset$ ; and  $\mathbf{n}_{\omega_v} \upharpoonright_{\partial_{\text{reg}}\omega_v \cap \partial_{\text{reg}}\omega_z}$  is the outer unit normal to  $\omega_v$  restricted to the face  $\partial_{\text{reg}}\omega_v \cap \partial_{\text{reg}}\omega_z$  (see Fig. 2).

**Notation 3.3.** If  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ , then conv A denotes the convex hull of A. For each pair of points  $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2$ , let  $[x,y] := \text{conv}\{x,y\}$  denote the line segment between x and y.

- (DA-3) For each  $m \in M$ , the triangulation  $\Sigma_m$  has the constrained Delaunay property: If  $\tilde{V}_m := \bigcup_{i \in I_m} V(\sigma_{m,i})$ ; then, for each  $(v,z) \in \tilde{V}_m^2$  such that  $v \neq z$ , the following conditions (a) and (b) are satisfied:
  - (a) If the boundaries of the Voronoï cells corresponding to v and z have a one-dimensional intersection, i.e. if  $\lambda_1(\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \partial \omega_{m,z}) \neq 0$ , then [v,z] is an edge of at least one  $\sigma \in \Sigma_m$ .
  - (b) If [v,z] is an edge of at least one  $\sigma \in \Sigma_m$ , then the boundaries of the corresponding Voronoï cells have a nonempty intersection, i.e.  $\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \partial \omega_{m,z} \neq \emptyset$ .

Also see Fig. 2, Rem. 3.4, and [FL01, Sec. 3.2].

Remark 3.4. Due to the two-dimensional setting, (DA-3) can be expressed equivalently in terms of the angles in the triangulation: For each  $m \in M$ , if  $\gamma$  is an interior edge of the triangulation  $\Sigma_m$ , and  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are the angles opposite to  $\gamma$ , then  $\alpha + \beta \leq \pi$ . If  $\gamma \subseteq \partial \Omega_m$  is a boundary edge of  $\Sigma_m$ , and  $\alpha$  is the angle opposite  $\gamma$ , then  $\alpha \leq \pi/2$ .

Figure 2: The pictures show the Voronoï cells of the triangulation vertices  $u_0, u_1, u_2, v, z$ . In (a), the triangulation violates the constrained Delaunay property  $(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 > \pi, \text{ cf. (DA-3)})$  and Rem. 3.4); in (b) the constrained Delaunay property is satisfied if, and only if, the edge [v, z] is not a material interface  $(\pi/2 < \alpha_1, \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 < \pi)$ .

The following Rem. 3.5 allows the incorporation of the interface condition (2.3) into the finite volume scheme (see (3.8) below).

Remark 3.5. Using Rem. 3.2, it is not hard to show that (DA-1) and (DA-3) imply the following assertions (a) and (b):

- (a) For each  $m \in M$ , the set  $V_m$  defined in (3.1b) is identical to the set  $\tilde{V}_m$  defined in (DA-3).
- (b) Let  $\Gamma$  be a one-dimensional material interface:  $\Gamma = \partial \Omega_m \cap \partial \Omega_{\tilde{m}}$ ,  $\lambda_1(\Gamma) \neq 0$ . For each  $v \in V$ , if some  $\overline{\omega}_v$  has a one-dimensional intersection with the interface  $\Gamma$ , then it lies on both sides of the intersection; in other words,  $\partial_{\text{reg}}\omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma = \partial_{\text{reg}}\omega_{\tilde{m},v} \cap \Gamma$ , in particular,  $\lambda_1(\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma) \neq 0$  if, and only if  $\lambda_1(\partial \omega_{\tilde{m},v} \cap \Gamma) \neq 0$ . However, Fig. 2(a) shows that this can generally not be expected in cases where the constrained Delaunay property is violated: If the edge  $[v,w] =: \Gamma$  constitutes a material interface, then both  $\overline{\omega}_{u_1}$  and  $\overline{\omega}_{u_2}$  have one-dimensional intersections with  $\Gamma$ , but lie on just one side of  $\Gamma$ .

Integrating (2.1) over  $\omega_{m,v}$  and applying the Gauss-Green integration theorem yields

$$-\int_{\partial \omega_{m,v}} (K_m(\theta) \nabla \theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{m,v}} = \int_{\omega_{m,v}} f_m, \qquad (3.2)$$

where  $\mathbf{n}_{\omega_{m,v}}$  denotes the outer unit normal vector to  $\omega_{m,v}$ .

# 3.2 Approximation of integrals, interface and boundary conditions

The finite volume scheme is furnished by using the interface conditions (2.3) and boundary condition (2.4a) together with (3.2), and by approximating integrals by quadrature formulas. To approximate  $\theta$  by a finite number of discrete unknowns  $\theta_v$ ,  $v \in V$ , precisely one value  $\theta_v$  is associated with each control volume  $\omega_v$ , where  $\theta_v$  can be interpreted as  $\theta(v)$  (cf. [FL01]).

On outer vertices  $v \in V_{\text{Dir}} := V \cap \overline{\Gamma}_{\text{Dir}}$ , the value of the solution is known from the Dirichlet condition (2.4a):

$$\theta_v = \theta_{\text{Dir}}(v) \quad \text{for each } v \in V_{\text{Dir}}.$$
 (3.3)

It remains to formulate a system to determine  $\theta_v$  for  $v \in V_{\neg \text{Dir}} := V \setminus V_{\text{Dir}}$ .

The boundary of each control volume  $\omega_{m,v}$  can be decomposed into three parts:

$$\partial \omega_{m,v} = (\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Omega_m) \cup (\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \partial \Omega) \cup (\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap (\partial \Omega_m \setminus \partial \Omega)), \tag{3.4}$$

where the first part lies in the interior of the material domain (dashed lines in Fig. 2), the second part coincides with part of the outer boundary, and the third part intersects material interfaces.

Remark 3.6. Simple geometric considerations show that the conditions (DA-1) and (DA-3) guarantee that the discretization  $\mathcal{T}$  respects interfaces and outer boundaries, and that there is a vertex  $v \in V$  in each of the integration domains  $\omega_{m,v}$  occurring in (3.4). More precisely:

- (a) For each  $v \in V$ : If there is  $m \in M$  and an edge [a,b] of a simplex of  $\Sigma_m$  such that  $[a,b] \subseteq \partial \Omega_m$  and  $\lambda_1(\overline{\omega}_v \cap [a,b]) \neq 0$ , then v=a or v=b.
- (b) For each  $v \in V$ ,  $m \in M$ : If  $\omega_{m,v} \neq \emptyset$ , then  $v \in \overline{\omega}_{m,v}$ . In particular, if  $(m, \tilde{m}) \in M^2$ ,  $\omega_{m,v} \neq \emptyset$ , and  $\omega_{\tilde{m},v} \neq \emptyset$ , then  $v \in \overline{\omega}_{m,v} \cap \overline{\omega}_{\tilde{m},v}$ .

However, note that Rem. 3.6(a),(b) can generally not be expected for triangulations that violate the constrained Delaunay property: For example, if, in Fig. 2(b), the edge [v,w] constitutes a material interface, say  $\Omega_1 := \sigma_1$ ,  $\Omega_2 := \sigma_2$ ,  $[v,w] = \partial \Omega_1 \cap \partial \Omega_2$ , then  $\omega_{1,u_1} \neq \emptyset$  and  $\omega_{2,u_1} \neq \emptyset$ , but  $u_1 \notin \overline{\omega}_{2,u_1}$ .

By (DA-2) and by Rem. 3.6(a), control volumes  $\overline{\omega}_v$  of non-Dirichlet vertices  $v \in V_{\neg \text{Dir}}$  can not have one-dimensional intersections with  $\Gamma_{\text{Dir}}$ . Thus, for  $v \in V_{\neg \text{Dir}}$ , up to null sets with respect to  $\lambda_1$ , (3.4) reduces to

$$\partial \omega_{m,v} = (\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Omega_m) \cup (\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma_{\text{Rob}}) \cup (\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap (\partial \Omega_m \setminus \partial \Omega)).$$
 (3.5)

We proceed by employing the Robin condition (2.4b) on  $\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma_{\text{Rob}}$  followed by the approximations  $\theta \approx \theta_v$  and  $\theta_{\text{ext},m,v} \approx (\lambda_1(\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma_{\text{Rob}}))^{-1} \cdot \int_{\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma_{\text{Rob}}} \theta_{\text{ext},m}$ , the

second of which will be further discussed in Section 3.4 below:

$$-\int_{\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma_{\text{Rob}}} (K_m(\theta) \nabla \theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{m,v}} = \int_{\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma_{\text{Rob}}} \xi_m (\theta - \theta_{\text{ext},m})$$

$$\approx \xi_m (\theta_v - \theta_{\text{ext},m,v}) \lambda_1 (\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma_{\text{Rob}}).$$
(3.6)

In the next step, we combine terms of the form  $\int_{\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap (\partial \Omega_m \setminus \partial \Omega)} (K_m(\theta) \nabla \theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{m,v}}$  by using the interface conditions (2.3). The set  $\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap (\partial \Omega_m \setminus \partial \Omega)$  is decomposed further into the intersections with the boundaries of all the particular material domains. Up to  $\lambda_1$ -null sets:

$$\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap (\partial \Omega_m \setminus \partial \Omega) = \bigcup_{\tilde{m} \in M \setminus \{m\}} \partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \partial \Omega_m \cap \partial \Omega_{\tilde{m}}. \tag{3.7}$$

According to Rem. 3.5, for each  $(m, \tilde{m}) \in M^2$  with  $m \neq \tilde{m}$ , one has  $\lambda_1(\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \partial \Omega_m \cap \partial \Omega_{\tilde{m}}) \neq 0$  if, and only if,  $\lambda_1(\partial \omega_{\tilde{m},v} \cap \partial \Omega_m \cap \partial \Omega_{\tilde{m}}) \neq 0$ . This justifies the second equality in the following computation (3.8). For each  $v \in V_{\neg \text{Dir}}$ :

$$-\sum_{m\in M} \int_{\partial\omega_{m,v}\cap(\partial\Omega_{m}\setminus\partial\Omega)} (K_{m}(\theta)\nabla\theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{m,v}}$$

$$\stackrel{(3.7)}{=} -\sum_{m\in M} \sum_{\tilde{m}\in M\setminus\{m\}} \int_{\partial\omega_{m,v}\cap\partial\Omega_{m}\cap\partial\Omega_{\tilde{m}}} (K_{m}(\theta)\nabla\theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{m,v}}$$

$$= -\sum_{\substack{(m,\tilde{m})\in M^{2}:\\ m\neq\tilde{m},\\ \lambda_{1}(\partial\omega_{m,v}\cap\partial\Omega_{m}\cap\partial\Omega_{\tilde{m}})\neq 0}} \left(\int_{\partial\omega_{m,v}\cap\partial\Omega_{m}\cap\partial\Omega_{\tilde{m}}} (K_{m}(\theta)\nabla\theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{m,v}}\right) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{\tilde{m},v}}$$

$$+\int_{\partial\omega_{\tilde{m},v}\cap\partial\Omega_{m}\cap\partial\Omega_{\tilde{m}}} (K_{\tilde{m}}(\theta)\nabla\theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{\tilde{m},v}}\right) \stackrel{(2.3)}{=} 0.$$

$$(3.8)$$

# 3.3 Approximation of heat flux term, anisotropy

**Notation 3.7.** For each  $m \in M$  and each  $(v, w) \in M^2$ , let  $\gamma_{m,v,w} := \partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \partial \omega_{m,w}$  denote the interface of the two Voronoï cells inside the material domain  $\Omega_m$  (of course, in general,  $\gamma_{m,v,w}$  can be empty).

To approximate the heat flux integrals  $\int_{\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Omega_m} (K_m(\theta) \nabla \theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{m,v}}$ , the set  $\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Omega_m$  is also partitioned further, namely into the interfaces with all neighboring Voronoï cells. Up to null sets with respect to  $\lambda_1$ :

$$\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Omega_m = \bigcup_{w \in \mathrm{nb}_m(v)} \gamma_{m,v,w}, \tag{3.9}$$

where  $\operatorname{nb}_{m}(v) := \{ w \in V_{m} \setminus \{v\} : \lambda_{1}(\gamma_{m,v,w}) \neq 0 \}$  is the set of m-neighbors of v. For example, in Fig. 3,  $\partial \omega_{1,v}$  is decomposed into  $\gamma_{1,v,u_{1}}$ ,  $\gamma_{1,v,w}$ , and  $\gamma_{1,v,u_{2}}$ .

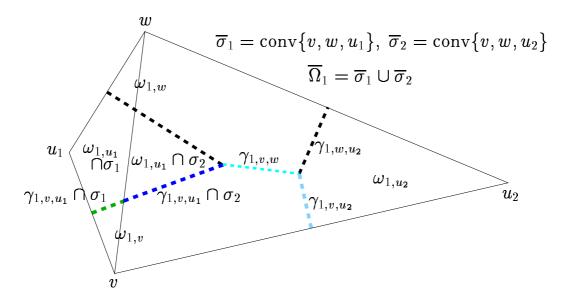


Figure 3: Illustration of the decomposition of  $\partial \omega_{1,v}$ .

The decomposition (3.9) reduces our task to approximating  $(K_m(\theta) \nabla \theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{m,v}}$  on  $\gamma_{m,v,w}$ . According to the assumed form (2.2) of the  $K_m(\theta)$ , the approximation can be broken down into two parts: (a) Approximation of the temperature-dependent, isotropic part. (b) Approximation of the temperature-independent, anisotropic part.

### Approximation of the temperature-dependent, isotropic part

We approximate  $\kappa_{iso}^m(\theta)$  on  $\gamma_{m,v,w}$  by the arithmetic mean

$$\kappa_{\rm iso}^{m}(\theta) \upharpoonright_{\gamma_{m,v,w}} \approx \frac{1}{2} \left( \kappa_{\rm iso}^{m}(\theta_{v}) + \kappa_{\rm iso}^{m}(\theta_{w}) \right).$$
(3.10)

Other approximations instead of (3.10) are available through using the antiderivative of  $\kappa_{iso}^m$  or by using upwind (s. [FL01, Sec. 6.4]). While the theoretical results in [FL01] establish desirable stability properties for these approximations in the isotropic case, according to our numerical results presented in Sec. 4.3 below, the simple approximation (3.10) works sufficiently well for our purposes.

### Approximation of the temperature-independent, anisotropic part

It remains to approximate  $(A_m \nabla \theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{m,v}}$  on  $\gamma_{m,v,w}$ , where  $A_m$  is the constant diagonal matrix

$$A_{m} = (a_{i,j}^{m}), \qquad a_{i,j}^{m} := \begin{cases} \alpha_{i}^{m} & \text{for } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{for } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

$$(3.11)$$

The idea is to devise the approximation such that it is exact provided that  $\theta$  is affine on each  $\sigma \in \Sigma$  and provided that  $\Sigma$  has the strong Delaunay property (all angles

are less than or equal to  $\pi/2$ ). If  $\theta$  is affine on  $\sigma \in \Sigma$ , then

$$\nabla \theta \upharpoonright_{\sigma} = \sum_{v \in V(\sigma)} \theta(v) \ \nabla \phi_{\sigma,v}, \tag{3.12}$$

where  $\phi_{\sigma,v}: \sigma \longrightarrow [0,1], v \in V(\sigma)$ , are the affine coordinates on the triangle  $\sigma$  with respect to its 3 vertices.

Given  $m \in M$ ,  $(v, w) \in V_m^2$ ,  $v \neq w$ , such that [v, w] is an edge of some  $\sigma \in \Sigma_m$ , let

$$\Sigma_{m,v,w} := \left\{ \sigma \in \Sigma_m : \left\{ v, w \right\} \subseteq V(\sigma) \right\} \tag{3.13}$$

be the set of triangles in  $\Sigma_m$  having [v,w] as an edge. Since  $\Sigma_m$  is a conforming triangulation of  $\Omega_m$  by (DA-1), if [v,w] is a boundary edge, then  $\Sigma_{m,v,w}$  has precisely one element; otherwise, it has precisely two elements, lying on different sides of [v,w]. For each  $\sigma \in \Sigma_{m,v,w}$ , let  $H_{v,w,\sigma}$  be the half-space that lies on the same side of the line through [v,w] as  $\sigma$ . Even though (DA-3) guarantees  $\lambda_1(\gamma_{m,v,w}) \neq 0$ , Fig. 3 shows that  $\gamma_{m,v,w}$  can lie entirely on one side of [v,w]. However, letting

$$\Sigma_{\gamma_{m,v,w}} := \left\{ \sigma \in \Sigma_{m,v,w} : \lambda_1(H_{v,w,\sigma} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w}) \neq 0 \right\}, \tag{3.14}$$

we can decompose  $\gamma_{m,v,w}$  according to

$$\gamma_{m,v,w} = \bigcup_{\sigma \in \Sigma_{\gamma_{m,v,w}}} \overline{\sigma} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w}. \tag{3.15}$$

For example, in Fig. 3,  $\gamma_{1,v,w}$  is decomposed into  $\overline{\sigma}_1 \cap \gamma_{1,v,w}$  and  $\overline{\sigma}_2 \cap \gamma_{1,v,w}$ .

Using (3.12) together with Rem. 3.2 yields, for each  $\sigma \in \Sigma_{\gamma_{m,v,w}}$ :

$$(A_{m} \nabla \theta) \upharpoonright_{\sigma} \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{v}} \upharpoonright_{\gamma_{m,v,w}} = \sum_{\tilde{v} \in V(\sigma)} \theta(\tilde{v}) (A_{m} \nabla \phi_{\sigma,\tilde{v}}) \bullet \frac{w - v}{\|w - v\|_{2}}.$$
 (3.16)

If we were to assume that  $\mathcal{T}_m$  is an  $A_m$ -orthogonal grid as defined in [ABB98a], i.e.  $\gamma_{m,v',w'} \bullet A_m(v'-w') = 0$  holds for all  $v',w' \in \tilde{V}_m$  such that [v',z'] is an edge of at least one  $\sigma \in \Sigma_m$ , then we would have the relations  $A_m \nabla \phi_{\sigma,v} \bullet (w-v) = -\|A_m(w-v)\|_2/\|w-v\|_2$ ,  $A_m \nabla \phi_{\sigma,w} \bullet (w-v) = \|A_m(w-v)\|_2/\|w-v\|_2$ , and  $A_m \nabla \phi_{\sigma,u} \bullet (w-v) = 0$  for  $u \in V(\sigma) \setminus \{v,w\}$ . These relations would imply

$$(A_{m} \nabla \theta) \upharpoonright_{\sigma} \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{v}} \upharpoonright_{\gamma_{m,v,w}} = \frac{\theta(w) - \theta(v)}{\|w - v\|_{2}} \frac{\|A_{m}(w - v)\|_{2}}{\|w - v\|_{2}}, \tag{3.17}$$

corresponding to the approximation used in [EGH00, Sec. 11.1] under the  $A_m$ -orthogonality assumption. We also note that the approximation considered in [Fai91] reduces to (3.17) for an  $A_m$ -orthogonal Voronoï grid. In the usual isotropic case, where  $\alpha_1^m = \alpha_2^m = 1$ , the second factor on the right-hand side of (3.17) becomes equal to 1, resulting in the usually used approximation of the isotropic case.

Providing a grid  $\Sigma_m$  such that the corresponding  $\mathcal{T}_m$  is  $A_m$ -orthogonal would allow to use the simpler approximation in (3.17) that only depends on the two values

of  $\theta$  in v and w, but, in contrast to (3.16), not on the value of  $\theta$  in the third corner of  $\sigma$ . Unfortunately, for  $\alpha_1 \neq \alpha_2$ ,  $A_m$ -orthogonality of  $\mathcal{T}_m$  only holds if, for all Voronoï cells  $\omega_{m,v}$ , the part of the boundary  $\partial \omega_{m,v}$  lying inside  $\Omega_m$  consists only of horizontal or vertical line segments. This is a quite strong restriction for the mesh  $\Sigma_m$ , which could be avoided if, in the definition (3.1) of the Voronoï cells, one were to replace the Euclidean distance with the norm  $\|\cdot\|_{A_m^{-1}}$  given by  $\|v\|_{A_m^{-1}} := \sqrt{A_m^{-1}v \cdot v}$  for all vectors v. However, this would entail many additional difficulties for practical computations, as, for example, many formulas had to be adapted, and, more importantly, when dealing with different anisotropy values in the different  $\Omega_m$ , one had to find a way for the grid generator to provide a grid  $\Sigma$  for  $\Omega$  such that, for each  $m \in M$ , the subgrid  $\Sigma_m$  of  $\Omega_m$  is appropriate for dealing with Voronoï cells defined with respect to the norm  $\|\cdot\|_{A_m^{-1}}$ . To avoid these additional problems that arise if one wants to ensure that (3.17) constitutes an accurate approximation, we prefer to use the slightly more complicated formula (3.16).

# Combination of the temperature-dependent and temperature-independent parts

Combining the approximations of the temperature-dependent and the temperature-independent parts, we are now in a position to state our approximation of the heat flux integral  $\int_{\gamma_{m,v,w}} (K_m(\theta) \nabla \theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{m,v}}$ . Combining (3.10), (3.15), and (3.16) yields

$$\int_{\gamma_{m,v,w}} (K_m(\theta) \nabla \theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_{m,v}}$$

$$\approx \sum_{\sigma \in \Sigma_{\gamma_{m,v,w}}} \frac{1}{2} \left( \kappa_{iso}^m(\theta_v) + \kappa_{iso}^m(\theta_w) \right)$$

$$\sum_{\tilde{v} \in V(\sigma)} \theta_{\tilde{v}} \left( A_m \nabla \phi_{\sigma,\tilde{v}} \right) \bullet \frac{w - v}{\|w - v\|_2} \lambda_1 (H_{v,w,\sigma} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w}).$$
(3.18)

#### Remarks on triangulations involving obtuse angles

Consider the case where the triangulation  $\Sigma_m$  satisfies the constrained Delaunay property, but not the strong Delaunay property, i.e. where there is an interior edge such as [v, w] in Fig. 3, with opposing angles  $\alpha_1$ ,  $\alpha_2$ ,  $\pi/2 < \alpha_1$ ,  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \leq \pi$ .

Then approximation (3.18) is generally not exact for piecewise affine  $\theta$  even if  $\kappa_{\text{iso}}^m \equiv 1$  and  $A_m$  is isotropic. For instance, in Fig. 3, on  $\sigma_2 \cap \gamma_{1,v,w}$ , the flux  $(A_m \nabla \theta) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_v} \upharpoonright_{\gamma_{m,v,u_1}}$  is approximated by  $(A_m \nabla \theta) \upharpoonright_{\sigma_1} \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_v} \upharpoonright_{\gamma_{m,v,u_1}}$ , which is, in general, different from  $(A_m \nabla \theta) \upharpoonright_{\sigma_2} \bullet \mathbf{n}_{\omega_v} \upharpoonright_{\gamma_{m,v,u_1}}$ . One could modify (3.18) to be always exact for piecewise affine  $\theta$ , albeit at the cost of making the implementation of the scheme more difficult. The simpler approximation used here, which is used in many papers dealing with finite volume schemes (see, e.g., [EGH00, FKL01]), is vindicated in the light of the numerical results presented in Sec. 4 below.

At this point, we would like to draw attention to an algorithmic pitfall that can arise when implementing formula (3.18) in the presence of both anisotropy and obtuse triangles. Let  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  be triangles belonging to  $\Sigma_m$  such that [v,w] is a common edge of  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$ . According to (3.14), this means  $\Sigma_{m,v,w} = \{\sigma_1,\sigma_2\}$ . When implementing (3.18), one is faced with the task of computing  $\lambda_1(H_{v,w,\sigma} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w})$ , i.e. the length of  $\gamma_{m,v,w}$  on both sides of [v,w], where we recall that  $\gamma_{m,v,w}$  is the interface between the Voronoï cells  $\omega_{m,v}$  and  $\omega_{m,w}$ . Program packages suitable for the implementation of finite volume schemes such as pdelib [FKL01] provide functions that compute approximations of (3.18) using loops over all relevant pairs  $([v,w],\sigma)$  and approximations  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma}$  of  $\lambda_1(H_{v,w,\sigma} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w})$ .

If the angles in  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  that are opposite to [v,w] are both acute, then  $\gamma_{m,v,w}$  has parts of positive length on both sides of [v,w], and the approximations  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_1}$  and  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_2}$  as computed by pdelib are quite accurate. However, if one of the angles, say the one in  $\sigma_1$  as in the situation depicted in Fig. 3, is obtuse, then  $\gamma_{m,v,w}$  lies entirely on one side of [v,w] such that  $\lambda_1(H_{v,w,\sigma_1}\cap\gamma_{m,v,w})=0,$  and the approximations  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_1}$  and  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_2}$  as provided by pdelib are no longer good approximations of  $\lambda_1(H_{v,w,\sigma_1} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w})$  and  $\lambda_1(H_{v,w,\sigma_2} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w})$ , respectively. In fact,  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_1}$  will be negative and  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_2}$  will be larger than  $\lambda_1(H_{v,w,\sigma_2}\cap\gamma_{m,v,w})$  such that the sum gives the correct value  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_1} + \lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_2} = \lambda_1(H_{v,w,\sigma_2} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w})$ . In the isotropic situation, the behavior of the pdelib functions is still quite appropriate, since, in this case, the factor in front of  $\lambda_1(H_{v,w,\sigma_1} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w})$  and the factor in front of  $\lambda_1(H_{v,w,\sigma_2} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w})$  in (3.18) are both equal to  $\frac{\theta(w)-\theta(v)}{||w-v||_2}$ . Thus, multiplying with  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_1}$  for  $\sigma_1$  and with  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_2}$  for  $\sigma_2$  and summing up the results afterwards leads to a good approximation of the last line in (3.18). However, in the anisotropic situation, the factors in front of  $\lambda_1(H_{v,w,\sigma_1} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w})$  and  $\lambda_1(H_{v,w,\sigma_2} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w})$  are different. Hence, in order to get an accurate implementation of (3.18), in the pdelib loops over the relevant pairs  $([v,w],\sigma)$ , one can no longer multiply by the standard pdelib approximations  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma}$ . For example, in the abovedescribed situation, one has to use 0 instead of  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_1}$ , and one has to use  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_1} + \lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_2}$  instead of  $\lambda_{m,v,w,\sigma_2}$ .

# 3.4 Approximation of the source term and of the external temperature

For the approximation of the source term, assuming that the  $f_m$  are at least integrable, let

$$f_{m,v} \approx \frac{\int_{\omega_{m,v}} f_m}{\lambda_2(\omega_{m,v})} \tag{3.19}$$

be a suitable approximation on  $\omega_{m,v}$ . In general, the choice will depend on the regularity of  $f_m$  (for  $f_m$  continuous, one might choose  $f_{m,v} := f_m(v)$ , but  $f_{m,v} := (\lambda_2(\omega_{m,v}))^{-1} \cdot \int_{\omega_{m,v}} f_m$  for a general  $f_m \in L^1(\Omega_m)$ ). However, a suitable approxima-

tion should satisfy

$$\left(f_{\boldsymbol{m},\boldsymbol{v}}\,\lambda_{\boldsymbol{2}}(\omega_{\boldsymbol{m},\boldsymbol{v}}) - \int_{\omega_{\boldsymbol{m},\boldsymbol{v}}} f_{\boldsymbol{m}}\right) \to 0 \quad \text{ for } \operatorname{diam}(\omega_{\boldsymbol{m},\boldsymbol{v}}) \to 0. \tag{3.20}$$

Similarly, depending on the regularity of the external temperature  $\theta_{\text{ext},m}$ , in the approximation of the Robin boundary condition, one may choose  $\theta_{\text{ext},m,v} := \theta_{\text{ext},m}(v)$ ,  $\theta_{\text{ext},m,v} := (\lambda_1(\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma_{\text{Rob}}))^{-1} \cdot \int_{\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma_{\text{Rob}}} \theta_{\text{ext},m}$ , or any other suitable approximation such that

$$\left(\theta_{\mathsf{ext},m,v} \, \lambda_1(\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma_{\mathsf{Rob}}) - \int_{\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma_{\mathsf{Rob}}} \theta_{\mathsf{ext},m}\right) \to 0 \quad \text{ for } \quad \mathsf{diam}(\omega_{m,v}) \to 0.$$

$$(3.21)$$

### 3.5 The finite volume scheme

At this point, all preparations are in place to state the finite volume scheme in (3.22) below. The terms in (3.22b) arise from (3.2) after summing over  $m \in M$ , using the decompositions (3.5), (3.7), (3.9), (3.15), as well as (3.8), and employing the approximations (3.6), (3.18), and (3.19), respectively. One is seeking a nonnegative solution  $(\theta_v)_{v \in V}$  to the following nonlinear system:

$$\theta_{v} = \theta_{\text{Dir}}(v) \quad \text{for each } v \in V_{\text{Dir}},$$

$$0 = \sum_{m \in M} \xi_{m} \left(\theta_{v} - \theta_{\text{ext},m,v}\right) \lambda_{1} \left(\partial \omega_{m,v} \cap \Gamma_{\text{Rob}}\right)$$

$$- \sum_{m \in M} \sum_{w \in \text{nb}_{m}(v)} \frac{1}{2} \left(\kappa_{\text{iso}}^{m}(\theta_{v}) + \kappa_{\text{iso}}^{m}(\theta_{w})\right)$$

$$\sum_{\sigma \in \Sigma_{\gamma_{m,v,w}}} \sum_{\tilde{v} \in V(\sigma)} \theta_{\tilde{v}} \left(A_{m} \nabla \phi_{\sigma,\tilde{v}}\right) \bullet \frac{w - v}{\|w - v\|_{2}} \lambda_{1} \left(H_{v,w,\sigma} \cap \gamma_{m,v,w}\right)$$

$$- \sum_{m \in M} f_{m,v} \lambda_{2}(\omega_{m,v}) \quad \text{for each } v \in V_{\neg \text{Dir}} = V \setminus V_{\text{Dir}}.$$

$$(3.22a)$$

# 3.6 Modifications for the axisymmetric case

Suppose that each material domain  $\Omega_m$ ,  $m \in M$ , is axisymmetric, and, in cylindrical coordinates  $(r, \vartheta, z)$ ,  $\theta$  and each  $f_m$ ,  $m \in M$ , are independent of the angular coordinate  $\vartheta$ . Starting with the model equations (2.1), (2.3), and (2.4) in three dimensions, one can then use the circular projection  $(r, \vartheta, z) \mapsto (r, z)$  to reduce the model as well as the finite volume scheme to two dimensions.

It was shown in [Phi03, Sec. 3.6] how symmetry conditions together with a change of variables can be used to reduce the space dimension in a finite volume scheme. In the case of cylindrical coordinates, the change of variables merely yields a factor r in the integrands occurring in (3.6), (3.8), (3.18), and (3.19), and thus in the corresponding terms in (3.22b).

# 4 Numerical experiments

### 4.1 Implementation

In the following Sections 4.2 and 4.3, we present numerical results obtained using the axisymmetric version of scheme (3.22) (cf. Sec. 3.6). The scheme was implemented as part of our software WIAS-HiTNIHS<sup>1</sup> which is based on the program package pdelib [FKL01]. In particular, pdelib uses the grid generator Triangle [She96] to produce constrained Delaunay triangulations of the domains, and it uses the sparse matrix solver PARDISO [SGF00, SG04] to solve the linear system arising from the linearization of (3.22) via Newton's method. The Dirichlet condition (3.22a) is implemented employing the penalty method.

## 4.2 Comparison with closed-form solutions

### 4.2.1 Single-material domain

For the verification of our finite volume scheme, we consider the following axisymmetric Dirichlet problem, written in cylindrical coordinates (r, z) in the domain  $\Omega = \{(r, z) : 0 < r < 0.2, -0.2 < z < 0.2\}$ :

$$-\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r\,\alpha_r\,\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial r}\right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(\alpha_z\,\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial z}\right) = 0 \qquad \text{in } \Omega, \tag{4.1a}$$

$$heta(r,z) = heta_{\mathrm{Dir}}(r,z) := rac{1}{2} rac{1}{lpha_r} r^2 - rac{1}{lpha_z} z^2 \qquad \qquad ext{on } \partial\Omega.$$
 (4.1b)

The Dirichlet problem (4.1) has the obvious closed-form solution

$$\theta(r,z) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\alpha_r} r^2 - \frac{1}{\alpha_z} z^2 \quad \text{on } \overline{\Omega}.$$
 (4.2)

We present the results of two numerical solutions of (4.1), one with  $(\alpha_r, \alpha_z) = (1,10)$  and one with  $(\alpha_r, \alpha_z) = (10,1)$ . In both cases, the numerical solution is computed using our finite volume scheme (3.22), modified for the axisymmetric case as described in Sec. 3.6. We vary the fineness of the grid, subsequently referred to as grid level l, where a higher level means a finer grid. In practice, we use the grid generator Triangle [She96] to control the fineness of the grid: If  $\Sigma^l = (\sigma_i^l)_{i \in I^l}$  denotes the triangulation of  $\Omega$  for grid level l, then Triangle guarantees that the area of the triangles  $\sigma_i^l$  is bounded by our prescribed value  $A^l$ :

$$\lambda_2(\sigma_i^l) \le A^l \quad \text{for each } i \in I^l.$$
 (4.3)

We calculate the discrete  $L_2$ -error  $\epsilon_{L_2}^l$  between the numerical solution  $\theta_{\text{num}}^l$  of grid

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>High Temperature Numerical Induction Heating Simulator; pronunciation: ~hit-nice.

level l and the exact solution  $\theta$  given by (4.2):

$$\epsilon_{L_2}^l := \sqrt{\sum_{v \in V^l} \operatorname{vol}(\omega_v^l) (\theta_{\text{num}}^l(v) - \theta(v))^2}, \qquad (4.4)$$

where  $v \in V^l$  are the vertices of the triangulation of grid level l, and  $\operatorname{vol}(\omega_v^l) := \int_{\omega_v^l} r \, \mathrm{d}r \, \mathrm{d}z$  is the r-weighted area of the Voronoï cell corresponding to the vertex v.

To determine the order of our numerical scheme, for grid levels  $l \geq 1$ , we define the numerical convergence rate  $\rho_{L_2}^l$  as follows (cf. [Krö97, LeV02]):

$$\rho_{L_2}^l := \left(\ln(\epsilon_{L_2}^l) - \ln(\epsilon_{L_2}^{l-1})\right) / \left(\ln(h^l) - \ln(h^{l-1})\right),\tag{4.5}$$

where  $h^l$  is the maximal edge length actually occurring in grid level l:

$$h^{l} := \max \{ \|v - z\|_{2} : [v, z] \text{ is edge of } \sigma_{i}^{l}, i \in I^{l} \}.$$
 (4.6)

Tables 1 and 2 show the dependence of the  $L_2$ -error  $\epsilon_{L_2}^l$  and of the numerical convergence rate  $\rho_{L_2}^l$  on the grid level l as computed for our two numerical solutions of (4.1): We choose  $A^0 := 4 \cdot 10^{-5}$ ,  $A^l := (1/4)^l A^0$ ,  $l \in \{0, \dots, 4\}$ . As described above, the grid generator then guarantees (4.3). For each grid level l, we determine the actually occurring maximal edge length  $h^l$  according to (4.6). We find that we have the approximate relation  $2\sqrt{A^l} \approx h^l$  (see values for  $h^l$  in Tables 1 and 2). The case  $(\alpha_r, \alpha_z) = (1, 10)$  is depicted in Table 1, whereas the case  $(\alpha_r, \alpha_z) = (10, 1)$  is depicted in Table 2. In both experiments, one can observe second order convergence: The error is approximately proportional to the square of the maximal edge length in the space discretization. This coincides with theoretical results in [Bey98, CLZ02], where, for a finite volume approximation of an isotropic elliptic equation with an  $H^2(\Omega)$  solution (in [Bey98]) or with a differentiable right-hand side (in [CLZ02]), a second order convergence is proved.

level	number	max edge length	$L_2$ -error	numerical convergence rate
l	of triangles	$h^l$	$\epsilon_{L_2}^l$	$ ho_{L_2}^l$
0	3117	$1.407 \ 10^{-2}$	$9.7146 \ 10^{-7}$	
1	12446	$6.7177 \ 10^{-3}$	$2.6754 \ 10^{-7}$	1.7443
2	49669	$3.5017 \ 10^{-3}$	$7.0362 \ 10^{-8}$	2.0501
3	198212	$1.7503 \ 10^{-3}$	$1.857 \ 10^{-8}$	1.9210
4	795195	$8.998 \ 10^{-4}$	$4.5971 \ 10^{-9}$	2.0983

Table 1:  $L_2$ -error and numerical convergence rate of the finite volume scheme for the numerical solution of (4.1) with anisotropy coefficients  $(\alpha_r, \alpha_z) = (10, 1)$ .

In Figures 4 and 5, we present isolevel plots of our two numerical solutions of (4.1) in comparison with the isolevel plots of the corresponding exact solution. In these plots, even for the coarsest grid, the numerical solution is virtually indistinguishable from the exact solution.

level	number	max edge length	$L_2$ -error	numerical convergence rate
l	of triangles	$h^l$	$\epsilon_{L_2}^l$	$ ho_{L_2}^l$
0	3117	$1.407 \ 10^{-2}$	$6.8619 \ 10^{-7}$	
1	12446	$6.7177 \ 10^{-3}$	$1.7805 \ 10^{-7}$	1.8248
2	49669	$3.5017 \ 10^{-3}$	$4.8672 \ 10^{-8}$	1.9907
3	198212	$1.7503 \ 10^{-3}$	$1.3105 \ 10^{-8}$	1.8921
4	795195	$8.998 \ 10^{-4}$	$3.1317 \ 10^{-9}$	2.1513

Table 2:  $L_2$ -error and numerical convergence rate of the finite volume scheme for the numerical solution of (4.1) with anisotropy coefficients  $(\alpha_r, \alpha_z) = (1, 10)$ .

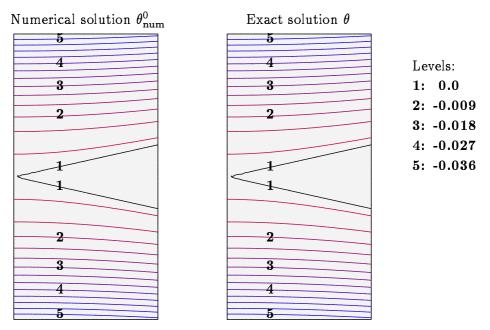


Figure 4: Isolevel plots on  $\Omega=(0,0.2)\times(-0.2,0.2)$  of the numerical solution  $\theta_{\text{num}}^0$  (grid level 0: 3117 triangles) (left) and of the exact solution  $\theta$  (right) of the Dirichlet problem (4.1) with anisotropy coefficients  $(\alpha_r,\alpha_z)=(10,1)$ . The difference between neighboring isolevels is 0.003.

## 4.2.2 Multi-material domain

For further verification of our method, we consider an axisymmetric Dirichlet problem with a closed-form solution, where the rectangular domain  $\Omega$  decomposes into four materials  $\Omega_m$ ,  $m \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ , each material having different anisotropy coefficients  $(\alpha_{m,r}, \alpha_{m,z})$ . More precisely, in cylindrical coordinates (r,z), we consider the following domains (see Fig. 6):

$$\begin{split} &\Omega_1 = \{ (r,z) : 0 < r < 0.1, \ 0 < z < 0.1 \}, \quad \Omega_2 = \{ (r,z) : 0.1 < r < 0.2, \ 0 < z < 0.1 \}, \\ &\Omega_3 = \{ (r,z) : 0 < r < 0.1, \ 0.1 < z < 0.2 \}, \quad \Omega_4 = \{ (r,z) : 0.1 < r < 0.2, \ 0.1 < z < 0.2 \}, \end{split}$$

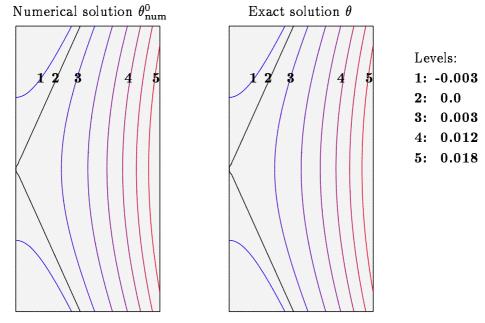


Figure 5: Isolevel plots on  $\Omega=(0,0.2)\times(-0.2,0.2)$  of the numerical solution  $\theta_{\text{num}}^0$  (grid level 0: 3117 triangles) (left) and of the exact solution  $\theta$  (right) of the Dirichlet problem (4.1) with anisotropy coefficients  $(\alpha_r,\alpha_z)=(1,10)$ . The difference between neighboring isolevels is 0.003.

and, given positive coefficients  $(\alpha_{m,r}, \alpha_{m,z})$  and real coefficients  $(a_m, b_m, c_m, f_m)$  for each  $m \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ , we consider the Dirichlet problem

$$-\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r\alpha_{m,r}\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial r}\right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(\alpha_{m,z}\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial z}\right) = f_{m} \text{ in } \Omega_{m}, \qquad (4.7a)$$

$$\left(\begin{pmatrix}\alpha_{m,r} & 0\\ 0 & \alpha_{m,z}\end{pmatrix}\nabla\theta\upharpoonright_{\overline{\Omega}_{m}}\right) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{m} = \left(\begin{pmatrix}\alpha_{\tilde{m},r} & 0\\ 0 & \alpha_{\tilde{m},z}\end{pmatrix}\nabla\theta\upharpoonright_{\overline{\Omega}_{\tilde{m}}}\right) \bullet \mathbf{n}_{m} \text{ on } \partial\Omega_{m} \cap \partial\Omega_{\tilde{m}}, \qquad (4.7b)$$

$$\theta(r,z) = \theta_{\mathrm{Dir},m}(r,z) := a_{m}r^{2} + b_{m}z^{2} + c_{m} \text{ on } \partial\Omega \cap \partial\Omega_{m}, \qquad (4.7c)$$

where  $\theta$  is required to be continuous throughout  $\overline{\Omega}$ . From the ansatz

$$\theta(r,z) := a_m r^2 + b_m z^2 + c_m$$
 on  $\overline{\Omega}_m$ ,  $m \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ , (4.8)

it is readily verified that (4.8) provides the exact solution to (4.7) if the coefficients  $\alpha_{m,r}$ ,  $\alpha_{m,z}$ ,  $a_m$ ,  $b_m$ ,  $c_m$ , and  $f_m$  are chosen as follows:

$$\alpha_{1,r} = 2, \qquad \alpha_{2,r} = 1, \qquad \alpha_{3,r} = 4, \qquad \alpha_{4,r} = 2, 
\alpha_{1,z} = 1, \qquad \alpha_{2,z} = 2, \qquad \alpha_{3,z} = 3, \qquad \alpha_{4,z} = 6, 
a_1 = 1, \qquad a_2 = 2, \qquad a_3 = 1, \qquad a_4 = 2, 
b_1 = 1, \qquad b_2 = 1, \qquad b_3 = 1/3, \qquad b_4 = 1/3, 
c_1 = 0, \qquad c_2 = -1/100, \qquad c_3 = 2/300, \qquad c_4 = -1/300, 
f_1 = -10, \qquad f_2 = -12, \qquad f_3 = -18, \qquad f_4 = -20.$$
(4.9)

The values (4.9) are the ones we use in our numerical experiments.

As in the previous Sec. 4.2.1, we compute numerical solutions  $\theta_{\text{num}}^l$  for grid levels lof increasing fineness to determine the numerical convergence rate. As before, we choose the area bounds  $A^0 := 4 \cdot 10^{-5}$ ,  $A^l := (1/4)^l A^0$ ,  $l \in \{0, ..., 4\}$ , enforced by the grid generator. For each grid level l, we determine the actually occurring maximal edge length  $h^l$  according to (4.6) and compute the numerical convergence rate  $\rho_{L_2}^l$ according to (4.5). Here, the discontinuity in the diffusion coefficients  $(\alpha_{m,r}, \alpha_{m,z})$ across material interfaces results in the solution's gradient being discontinuous across material interfaces as well. In consequence, as compared to the results of the previous section, we lose one order of convergence, as can be seen from the values of the discrete  $L_2$ -error  $\epsilon_{L_2}^l$  and the numerical convergence rate  $\rho_{L_2}^l$  collected in Table 3: The error is approximately proportional to the maximal edge length in the space discretization. This corresponds to the order of convergence proved for some finite volume schemes in [EGH00, BMO96]. Moreover, since the solution is in  $H^{1+s}(\Omega)$ for all s < 1/2 but not for s = 1, one may expect, after considering [Bey98, Satz 4.2.25], that one has convergence of order  $h^s$  for all s < 1, but not convergence of linear order.

In spite of the reduced convergence rate, Figure 6 shows that, as in the previous Sec. 4.2.1, even for the coarsest grid, the numerical solution is virtually indistinguishable from the exact solution.

level	number	max edge length	$L_2$ -error	numerical convergence rate
l	of triangles	$h^l$	$\epsilon_{L_2}^l$	$\rho_{L_2}^l$
0	1557	$1.271 \ 10^{-2}$	$2.5600 \ 10^{-5}$	
1	6148	$6.803 \ 10^{-3}$	$1.2825 \ 10^{-5}$	1.1059
2	24813	$3.4106 \ 10^{-3}$	$6.3352 \ 10^{-6}$	1.0214
3	99428	$1.793 \ 10^{-3}$	$3.1972 \ 10^{-6}$	1.0635
4	398130	$8.925 \ 10^{-4}$	$1.6108 \ 10^{-6}$	0.9827

Table 3:  $L_2$ -error and numerical convergence rate of the finite volume scheme for the numerical solution of (4.7) with the coefficients chosen according to (4.9).

Further tests with various sets of coefficients also confirm the convergence of our scheme. Thus, the next step is the application of the method to a complex geometry of a realistic application, where a closed-form solution is no longer available. We consider such an application in the following Sec. 4.3, namely the crystal growth apparatus presented in the Introduction (see Fig. 1).

# 4.3 Results for complex geometry

In this section, we apply the axisymmetric version of scheme (3.22) (cf. Sec. 3.6) to compute numerical solutions to the nonlinear stationary anisotropic heat equation (2.1) on the axisymmetric domain  $\Omega$  depicted in Fig. 1. The radius is 12 cm and the height is 45.3 cm. As described in the Introduction, this domain represents a growth

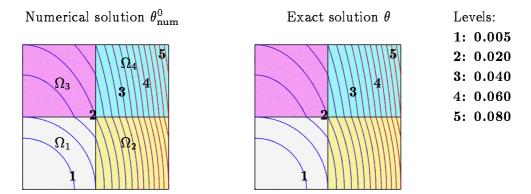


Figure 6: Isolevel plots on  $\Omega = (0,0.2) \times (0,0.2)$  of the numerical solution  $\theta_{\text{num}}^0$  (grid level 0: 1557 triangles) (left) and of the exact solution  $\theta$  (right) of the Dirichlet problem (4.7) with the coefficients chosen according to (4.9). The difference between neighboring isolevels is 0.005.

apparatus used in silicon carbide single crystal growth by the PVT method. As shown in Fig. 1,  $\Omega$  consists of six subdomains  $\Omega_m$ ,  $m \in \{1, \ldots, 6\}$ , representing the materials insulation, graphite crucible, SiC crystal seed, gas enclosure, SiC powder source, and quartz. Aiming to use realistic functions for the isotropic parts  $\kappa_{\rm iso}^m(\theta)$  of the thermal conductivity tensors (cf. (2.2)), for gas enclosure, graphite crucible, insulation, and SiC crystal seed, we use the functions given by (A.1), (A.3b), (A.4b), and (A.7b) in [KPSW01]; for  $\kappa_{\rm iso}^5(\theta)$  (SiC powder source), we use [KP03, (A.1)], and for  $\kappa_{\rm iso}^6(\theta)$  (quartz), we use

$$\kappa_{\rm iso}^{6}(\theta) = \left(1.82 - 1.21 \cdot 10^{-3} \, \frac{\theta}{\rm K} + 1.75 \cdot 10^{-6} \, \frac{\theta^{2}}{\rm K^{2}}\right) \, \frac{\rm W}{\rm m \, K}.\tag{4.10}$$

Hence, all functions  $\kappa_{iso}^m(\theta)$  depend nonlinearly on  $\theta$ . As mentioned in the Introduction, the thermal conductivity in the insulation is typically anisotropic in PVT growth apparatus. In the numerical experiments reported on below, we therefore vary the anisotropy coefficients  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1)$  of the insulation while keeping  $(\alpha_r^m, \alpha_z^m) = (1,1)$  for all other materials  $m \in \{2, \ldots, 5\}$ .

Heat sources  $f_m \neq 0$  are supposed to be present only in the part of  $\Omega_2$  (graphite crucible) labeled by "uniform heat sources" in the left-hand picture in Fig. 7 satisfying 5.4 cm  $\leq r \leq 6.6$  cm and 9.3 cm  $\leq z \leq 42.0$  cm. In that region,  $f_2$  is set to the constant value  $f_2 = 1.23$  MW/m³, which corresponds to a total heating power of 1.8 kW. This serves as an approximation to the situation typically found in a radio frequency induction-heated apparatus, where a moderate skin effect concentrates the heat sources within a few millimeters of the conductor's outer surface.

The interface conditions are given by (2.3). Here, our main goal is to illustrate the effectiveness of our finite volume scheme of Sec. 3 to compute the temperature field in a realistic complex geometry involving materials with anisotropic thermal conductivity. If the anisotropy in the thermal conductivity of the insulation is sufficiently large, we expect the isotherms to be almost parallel to the direction

with the larger anisotropy coefficient. Since using the Dirichlet boundary condition (2.4a) can suppress such an alignment of the isotherms, we opt to use the Robin condition (2.4b) on all of  $\partial\Omega$  instead. For  $m \in \{1, 2, 6\}$ , we set  $\theta_{\text{ext},m} = 500 \text{ K}$  and  $\xi_m = 80 \text{ W/(m}^2\text{K})$  (recall from Fig. 1 that  $\Omega_1$ ,  $\Omega_2$ , and  $\Omega_6$  represent the insulation, the graphite crucible, and quartz, respectively, and, thus, the outer materials of the apparatus).

The setting of this section constitutes a compromise between showing a realistic situation and staying within the scope of the simple model of Sec. 2. More realistic computations of heat transfer in PVT growth apparatus involve simulations at higher temperatures, computing the heat sources by solving Maxwell's equations, and including nonlocal radiative heat transfer between cavity surfaces as well as Stefan-Boltzmann emission conditions. For results of such numerical simulations, also applying the finite volume scheme developed in the current article to handle anisotropic thermal conductivity, we refer to our paper [GKP05].

We now present results of 7 numerical experiments, varying the anisotropy coefficients  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1)$  in the insulation. In each case, we use a fine grid consisting of 61 222 triangles. We start with the isotropic case  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1, 1)$  depicted on the right-hand side of Fig. 7. Figure 8 shows the computed temperature fields for the moderately anisotropic cases  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (10, 1)$  (left),  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1, 10)$  (middle),  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (10, 1)$  in top and bottom insulation parts,  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1, 10)$  in insulation side wall (right). Figure 9 shows the computed temperature fields for the strongly anisotropic cases  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1000, 1)$  (left),  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1, 1000)$  (middle),  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1000, 1)$  in top and bottom insulation parts,  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1, 1000)$  in insulation side wall (right). The maximal temperatures established in the 7 experiments are collected in Table 4.

$\alpha_{r}^{1}$	$\alpha_z^1$	maximal temperature
		[K]
1	1	1273.18
1	10	1232.15
1-10, mixed	1-10, mixed	1238.38
10	1	918.35
1	1000	1063.58
1-1000, mixed	1-1000, mixed	1030.45
1000	1	706.36

Table 4: Maximal temperatures for the 7 numerical experiments discussed in Sec. 4.3, depending on the anisotropy coefficients  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1)$  of the insulation (cf. Figures 7 - 9).

Comparing the temperature fields in Figures 7 - 9 as well as the maximal temperatures listed in Table 4, we find that any anisotropy reduces the effectiveness of the thermal insulation, where a stronger anisotropy results in less insulation: As we keep the total heating power fixed at 1.8 kW in each experiment, lower temperatures in the apparatus indicate a less effective thermal insulation. Here, the effect

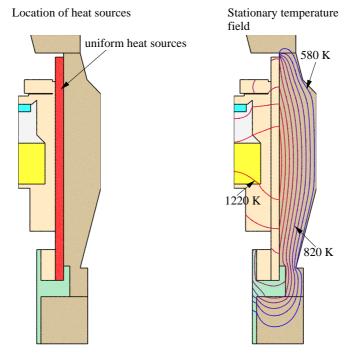


Figure 7: Left: Location of the heat sources. Right: Computed temperature field for the isotropic case  $\alpha_r^1 = \alpha_z^1 = 1$ , where the isotherms are spaced at 80 K.

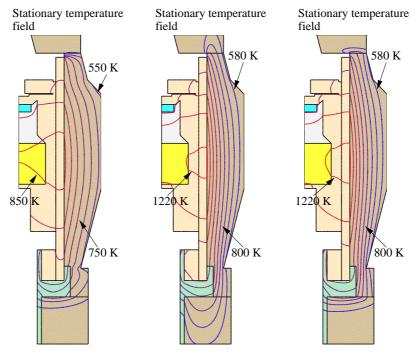


Figure 8: Computed temperature fields for the moderately anisotropic cases  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (10, 1)$  (left, isotherms spaced at 50 K);  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1, 10)$  (middle, isotherms spaced at 80 K);  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (10, 1)$  in top and bottom insulation parts,  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1, 10)$  in insulation side wall (right, isotherms spaced at 80 K).

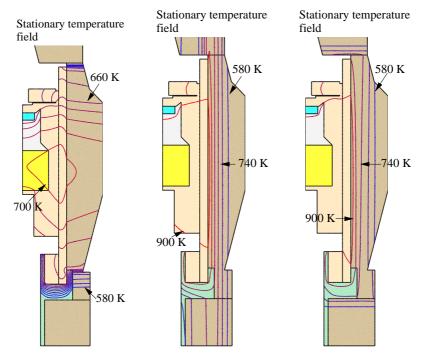


Figure 9: Computed temperature fields for the strongly anisotropic cases  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1000, 1)$  (left, isotherms spaced at 10 K);  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1, 1000)$  (middle, isotherms spaced at 80 K);  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1000, 1)$  in top and bottom insulation parts,  $(\alpha_r^1, \alpha_z^1) = (1, 1000)$  in insulation side wall (right, isotherms spaced at 80 K).

that a stronger anisotropy results in a less effective insulation is expected, since raising the anisotropy coefficients of one direction to a value above 1 improves the insulation's thermal conductivity in that direction. Similarly, when reducing one of the anisotropy coefficients to a value below 1, a stronger anisotropy would result in improved insulation.

It can also be seen from Figures 7 - 9 and Table 4 that the insulation's effectiveness depends strongly on the orientation of the anisotropy: Raising  $\alpha_r^1$  to 10 and 1000 has a much more pronounced effect than raising  $\alpha_z^1$  to 10 and 1000. The reason is that a large thermal conductivity in the radial direction results in heat being effectively transported from the region of the heat sources to the vertical boundary of the apparatus. When constructing the apparatus it is thus important to use the insulation material such that its preferred direction of thermal conductivity is parallel to the side wall. Changing the anisotropy orientation in the top and bottom parts of the insulation (right-hand side in Figures 8 and 9) seems to have little effect on the overall temperature field. However, the temperature field inside the top and bottom parts of the insulation is affected considerably by changing the parts' anisotropy. In particular, one can clearly see the expected alignment of the isotherms with the preferred direction of thermal conductivity. Moreover, for the strongly anisotropic cases (Fig. 9), the isotherms' alignment is quite prominent in all three considered cases.

### 5 Conclusions

We have constructed a finite volume scheme suitable for the solution of nonlinear heat equations with anisotropic thermal conductivity on complicated polyhedral domains. The discretization of the space domains is facilitated by unstructured grids, namely triangulations satisfying the constrained Delaunay condition. The finite volume scheme is described for Cartesian coordinates as well as for cylindrical coordinates to allow the application to axisymmetric geometries. The scheme has been verified in comparison with exact closed-form solutions, showing second order convergence in a single-material domain and first order convergence in a multi-material domain with jumping thermal conductivity coefficients. Furthermore, the finite volume scheme has been applied to compute the heat transport in a complex crystal growth apparatus using various anisotropic thermal conductivities in its insulation, demonstrating the effectiveness of the method in realistic applications.

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