A comparative study of disc-planet interaction

M. de Val-Borro\textsuperscript{1}\textsuperscript{*}, R. G. Edgar\textsuperscript{1,2}, P. Artymowicz\textsuperscript{1,3}, P. Ciecielag\textsuperscript{4,5}, P. Cresswell\textsuperscript{6}, G. D’Angelo\textsuperscript{7}, E. J. Delgado-Donate\textsuperscript{1}, G. Dirksen\textsuperscript{8}, S. Fromang\textsuperscript{6,9}, A. Gawryszczak\textsuperscript{5}, H. Klahr\textsuperscript{10}, W. Kley\textsuperscript{8}, W. Lyra\textsuperscript{11}, F. Masset\textsuperscript{12,13}, G. Mellema\textsuperscript{14,1}, R. P. Nelson\textsuperscript{6}, S.-J. Paardekooper\textsuperscript{14}, A. Peplinski\textsuperscript{1}, A. Pierens\textsuperscript{15,6}, T. Plewa\textsuperscript{16}, K. Rice\textsuperscript{17}, C. Schäfer\textsuperscript{8}, R. Speith\textsuperscript{8}

\textsuperscript{1} Stockholm University, AlbaNova University Center, SE-106 91, Stockholm, Sweden
\textsuperscript{2} Dept. of Physics and Astronomy, University of Rochester, NY 14627, USA
\textsuperscript{3} University of Toronto at Scarborough, 1265 Military Trail, Toronto, Ontario M1C 1A4, Canada
\textsuperscript{4} University Observatory Munich, Scheinerstr. 1, D-81679 Munich, Germany
\textsuperscript{5} Nicolaus Copernicus Astronomical Centre, Bartycka 18, Warsaw, PL-00-716, Poland
\textsuperscript{6} Astronomy Unit, Queen Mary, University of London, Mile End Rd, London E1 4NS, UK
\textsuperscript{7} School of Physics, University of Exeter, Stocker Road, Exeter, EX4 4QL, UK
\textsuperscript{8} Institute of Astronomy and Astrophysics Tübingen, Auf der Morgenstelle 10, D-72076 Tübingen, Germany
\textsuperscript{9} DAMTP, University of Cambridge, Centre for Mathematical Sciences, Wilberforce Road, Cambridge, CB3 0WA, UK
\textsuperscript{10} Max-Planck-Institut für Astronomie, Königstuhl 17, D-69117 Heidelberg, Germany
\textsuperscript{11} Department of Astronomy & Space Physics, Uppsala Astronomical Observatory, Box 515, 751 20, Sweden
\textsuperscript{12} CEA, Service d’Astrophysique, Saclay, 91919 Gif-sur-Yvette Cedex, France
\textsuperscript{13} IA-UNAM, Ciudad Universitaria, Apartado Postal 70-264, Mexico D.F. 04510, Mexico
\textsuperscript{14} Leiden Observatory, P.O. Box 9513, NL-2300 RA Leiden, The Netherlands
\textsuperscript{15} Luth, Observatoire de Paris-Meudon, 92 195 Meudon Cedex, France
\textsuperscript{16} ASC FLASH Center, University of Chicago, 5640 South Ellis, Chicago, IL 60637, USA
\textsuperscript{17} Scottish Universities Physics Alliance, Institute for Astronomy, University of Edinburgh, Blackford Hill, Edinburgh, EH9 3HJ, UK

20 March 2022

ABSTRACT
We perform numerical simulations of a disc-planet system using various grid-based and smoothed particle hydrodynamics (SPH) codes. The tests are run for a simple setup where Jupiter and Neptune mass planets on a circular orbit open a gap in a protoplanetary disc during a few hundred orbital periods. We compare the surface density contours, potential vorticity and smoothed radial profiles at several times. The disc mass and gravitational torque time evolution are analyzed with high temporal resolution. There is overall consistency between the codes. The density profiles agree within about 5% for the Eulerian simulations while the SPH results predict the correct shape of the gap although have less resolution in the low density regions and weaker planetary wakes. The disc masses after 200 orbital periods agree within 10%. The spread is larger in the tidal torques acting on the planet which agree within a factor 2 at the end of the simulation. In the Neptune case the dispersion in the torques is greater than for Jupiter, possibly owing to the contribution from the not completely cleared region close to the planet.

Key words: Physical data and processes: accretion, accretion discs – hydrodynamics. Solar system: planets and satellites: general.

1 INTRODUCTION
Hydrodynamics is a difficult subject, which has caused many problems for many distinguished physicists. However, it is not a topic which can be avoided, due to the central part that gas plays in the cosmos.

* Email: miguel@astro.su.se

The basic equations of hydrodynamics are the Navier-Stokes
equations, and have been known for almost two centuries:

\[
\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v}) = 0 \\
\frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial t} + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{v} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p - \nabla \Phi + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{T}
\]

where \( \rho \) is the density, \( \mathbf{v} \) the velocity of the fluid, \( p \) the pressure, \( \Phi \) the gravitational potential and \( \mathbf{T} \) is the full viscous stress tensor (see e.g. Mihalas and Weibel 1984). The first equation describes the conservation of mass and the second, conservation of momentum. An equation of state closes the system of equations, and additional terms may be added as required. Despite their comparatively simple form, the Navier-Stokes equations have proved remarkably stubborn to mathematical analysis.

The problem lies in the \( \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v} \) terms (the so-called ‘advection’ terms). These arise because the equations describe a fluid moving past a fixed point in space (the Eulerian point of view). The advection terms make the equations non-linear (since they are effectively proportional to \( \mathbf{v}^2 \)), rendering many mathematical techniques useless. Indeed, no one has yet proven that solutions to the Navier-Stokes equations are unique. This is in sharp contrast to many other important equations in physics. For example, the Poisson equation is linear, and has unique solutions. This opens up many avenues for obtaining solutions — the Method of Images being a well known example. As a result of this non-linearity, theoretical investigation of fluids has to be restricted to highly idealised flows.

To make progress then, we are forced to turn to computers. Numerical algorithms for solving complex equations have been studied for centuries, and computers are ideal for implementing these. Unfortunately, computers are tricky beasts, with a habit of doing precisely what you told them to, just when you least expected it. The ‘obvious’ way of computing a numerical solution may well be unstable (this is particularly true of the Navier-Stokes equations), and an implementation of a stable method may well contain bugs. Floating point numbers have finite accuracy, and various subleties arise when codes approach this limit. In particular, the comparison of models of photoionization regions (Péquignot et al. 2001).

The aim of this project is to test the reliability of present numerical computations of disc-planet interaction with a quantitative comparison and generate a benchmark for future simulations. In Section 3, we briefly describe the interaction between a planet and a protoplanetary disc and outline the motivation for this study. The initial setup and boundary conditions of the problem are described in Section 4. In Section 5, the numerical methods used in the comparison are described. The results are shown in Section 6. We discuss the results in Section 6 and in Appendix A, we summarize our experience with this project that could be useful for future comparisons.

2 DISC-PLANET INTERACTION

Over 160 extrasolar planetary systems have been discovered by radial velocity measurements during the last years (e.g. Mayor and Queloz 1995; Marcy and Butler 1996). Giant planets have been found in very close orbits around the central star with orbital periods of a few days and almost circular orbits, the so-called “Hot Jupiters”. Orbits orbiting at larger distances from the star show a broad eccentricity distribution reaching roughly \( e = 0.9 \) (for recent reviews of the properties of the observed systems see Marcy et al. 2003, 2005). The origin of the differences with the planets in the solar system is not well understood, although various explanations have been proposed. The standard models explain giant planet formation either through planetesimal accumulation followed by rapid gas accretion onto the planet core (Pollack et al. 1996) or gravitational instabilities in the disc (see e.g. Boss 1999, 2001). In both cases the planets are likely to have formed at larger distances from the central star than observed.

Orbital migration due to gravitational interaction between the planet and the gaseous disc is a possible mechanism to bring planets to a close orbit. The tidal interaction between a planet and a gaseous disc was studied before the discovery of extrasolar planetary systems by Goldreich and Tremaine (1979, 1980) and Lin and Papaloizou (1979, 1986a, b). In the linear approximation the planet excites waves at the Lindblad resonances that deposit angular momentum in the disc. The flux of angular momentum has different signs in the inner and outer discs causing the orbital migration of the planet.

Ward (1997) proposed that two different types of planetary drift exist. Type I migration occurs when the planet mass is small and migrates relative to the disc with a rate proportional to its mass and the surface density of the disc. This migration is quite fast and the orbital decay timescale of the order of \( 10^3 \) years is comparable to the formation timescale of a giant planet by planetesimal accumulation. In type II migration the planet is massive enough to open a gap in the disc. The planet is then locked to the viscous evolution of the disc and its migration rate will be determined by the

---

1 http://www.usm.uni-muenchen.de/Planets/
A comparative study of disc-planet interaction

3 SETUP DESCRIPTION

We examined the gap opening by a giant planet in an infinitesimally thin disk with a constant surface density. The numerical setup was defined in the web\(^2\) where interested modelers were invited to participate in the comparison.

The planet’s gravitational potential was given by the formula

\[
\phi = -\frac{\mu}{\sqrt{r^2 + \epsilon^2}}
\]

where \(r\) is the distance from the planet and \(\epsilon\) is the gravity softening.

The simulations were run with two different softening coefficients:

\[
\epsilon_1 = 0.2 r_\lambda
\]

\[
\epsilon_2 = 0.6 H_p,
\]

where \(r_\lambda = (\mu/3)^{1/3}\) is the size of the Roche Lobe of the planet, and the larger value

\[
\epsilon_2 = 0.6 H_p,
\]

with \(H_p\) the disc scale height at the planet location. The second softening was mainly introduced to mimic the torque cut-off due to the effect of the disc vertical distribution. The results discussed in this paper concern mostly the calculations that use the larger softening. In our simulations, the self-gravity, energy transfer and magnetic fields in the gaseous disc were not considered.

The mass relation between the planet and the star was chosen so that the reduced mass has the values \(\mu = M_p/(M_\star + M_p) = 10^{-3}\) and \(10^{-4}\), corresponding to roughly Jupiter and Neptune masses when the star mass \(M_\star = M_\odot\). The planet was kept in a circular orbit at approximately semi-major axis \(a = 1\) ignoring the effect of the gravitational torques on the planet. The position of the planet in the cell with respect to the cell’s corner is given in Table 1. The computations were performed in the radial domain \([0.4a, 2.5a]\) to study the influence of the planet in a sufficiently large fraction of the disc. In the cylindrical grid codes, the number of cells in the radial and azimuthal directions were \(n_r \times n_\phi = (128, 384)\) with uniform spacing in both dimensions. Therefore, the cells around the planet position were approximately square. Several tests were done with different schemes at resolution \(n_r \times n_\theta = (256, 768)\) and \(n_r \times n_\phi = (512, 1536)\) to check the convergence of the results. The polar coordinates schemes used a corotating reference frame. The centre of the frame was not specified in the problem description and codes with frames centred in the centre of mass (CM) and central star were used. The star position was fixed at \(r, \phi = (0, 0)\) and the planet at \(r, \theta = (1, 0)\) in co-rotating coordinates, where the azimuthal range was \([-\pi, \pi]\).

The Cartesian schemes FLASH-AP and PENCIL were run on a uniform non-rotating grid at resolution \(n_r \times n_\phi = (320, 320)\), and \(n_r \times n_\theta = (640, 640)\). The computational domain was \([-2.6a, 2.6a] \times [-2.6a, 2.6a]\). The unit of time used in the simulations was the orbital period at \(a = 1\) which is defined as

\[
P_p = 2\pi \left[ \frac{a^3}{G(M_\star + M_p)} \right]^{1/2} = 2\pi,
\]

where \(G = 1\) and \(M_\star + M_p = 1\). The angular frequency of the planet was \(\Omega_p = 1\) in our units.

3.1 Initial conditions

The modelled disc was 2-dimensional so that the vertically integrated quantities were solved. The initial surface density was constant and given by the expression

\[
\Sigma_0 = 0.002 \frac{M_\star}{\pi a^2}
\]

where \(a\) is the semi-major axis of the planet. We assume that the heat generated by viscous dissipation and tidal forces in the disc is radiated away, so the disc remains geometrically thin. The initial angular velocity was fixed to the local Keplerian frequency at the given radial position and the radial velocity was zero initially.

We used the standard sound speed profile of a slightly flaring solar nebula \(H/R = c_s/v_K = 0.05\), where \(H\) is the disc scale height, \(R\) the distance from the centre of the star, \(v_K\) the local Keplerian velocity, and \(c_s\) the isothermal sound speed defined as

\[
c_s^2 = \frac{\partial P}{\partial \Sigma}.
\]

which has a dependence on radius \(c_s \propto r^{-1/2}\). This corresponds to a locally isothermal equation of state with a profile \(T(r) \propto r^{-1}\) maintained through the simulation. The disc height at the planet location remains constant during the opening of the gap.

The planet mass was gradually increased during the first 5 orbital periods using the expression

\[
\frac{M(t)}{M_p} = \sin^2 \left( \frac{\pi t}{10P_p} \right)
\]

to avoid the appearance of strong shocks seen when the planet is introduced instantaneously. The gas accretion from the disc onto the planet was ignored. This situation can be realistic in the case when the planet’s atmosphere fills the Roche lobe and no further accretion is allowed.

\(^2\) http://www.astro.su.se/groups/planets/comparison/
The problem was originally proposed to be run with no artificial viscosity or as low as possible as allowed by the code. Some of the used codes include artificial viscosity to smooth out the shock fronts and prevent unphysical results as described in Section 3.1. We performed simulations for each planet mass including a physical viscosity that generates a stress tensor with a turbulent viscosity coefficient $\nu$ (see e.g. Landau and Lifshitz 1959; Kley 1999). The values of the kinematic viscosity used in our simulations were $\nu = 0$ and $10^{-5}$ in units where $a = 1$ and $G(M_\ast + M_p) = 1$. The simulations were run typically during several hundred orbital periods for each of the planet masses and viscosity coefficients.

3.2 Boundary conditions
To completely define the problem, we describe the implemented boundary conditions. The disc was considered as an isolated system with no mass inflow. We used solid boundary conditions with wave killing zones next to the boundaries to reduce wave reflection in the cylindrical coordinates codes. In the polar coordinates schemes, the damping regions were implemented in the radial ranges $[0.4a, 0.5a]$ and $[2.1a, 2.5a]$, where the following equation was solved after each timestep:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -\frac{x-x_0}{\tau} R(r)$$

(10)

where $x$ represents the surface density and velocity components, $\tau$ is the orbital period at the corresponding boundary and $R(r)$ is a parabolic function which is one at the domain boundary and zero at the interior boundary of the wave killing zones. This wave damping condition does not conserve mass, but the mass loss is very small as shown below.

The grid-based codes in Cartesian coordinates implemented the same wave killing condition as the polar codes in the region $[2.1a, 2.5a]$. Tests were done including the damping condition in the region $[0.4a, 0.5a]$ although this is not necessary since there is no inner solid boundary. There was free outflow in the $x$ and $y$ boundaries in the Cartesian implementations.

Note that the SPH codes implement different boundary conditions using rings of virtual particles as described in section 4

3.3 Output data
2-D snapshots of the density and velocity components were output at 2, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100 and 200 orbital periods for grid codes, although in some cases the simulations were run up to 500 periods. All the physical quantities were given at the cell centres.

In the case of SPH codes the output quantities at the previous times were particle positions, velocity components, smoothing length and mass. The particles were projected to a 2-dimensional cylindrical grid with the resolution $n_r \times n_\phi = (128, 384)$ to compare directly with the lower resolution results from the Eulerian grid codes. The associated kernel for each particle used internally by our codes was the third order spline function introduced by Monaghan and Lattanzio 1983 with a multiplicative coefficient corresponding to a 2-dimensional simulation. The density at a given point was calculated by interpolation with the spline kernel using the expression

$$\langle \rho(r_i) \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^{N} m_j W(|r_i - r_j|, h_j)$$

(11)

where $m_j$ is the mass of the particle, $W(r, h_j)$ is the spline kernel and $|r_i - r_j|$ is the distance from the cell centre to the given particle. The smoothing length $h_j$ has different values for each particle. In a similar manner, the velocity components were interpolated to the grid with the kernel function and normalized with respect to the integrated kernel. The resolution element of the SPH models is given by the smoothing length of the particles. For the number of particles used in the SPH calculations, the effective resolution is similar to the number of cells in the hydro models at the aforementioned resolution, were the particles distributed in an equivalent spatial domain. SPHTREE uses a smaller smoothing length than PARASPH and therefore should have a slightly better spatial resolution in our calculations.

The azimuthally averaged density was obtained as

$$\bar{\Sigma} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \Sigma d\phi$$

(12)

Slices of the surface density were taken at the planet position and Lagrangian points in the radial and azimuthal directions.

We calculated the vortensity or potential vorticity, defined as the ratio of vorticity and surface density

$$\zeta = \frac{(\mathbf{\nabla} \times \mathbf{v})_r}{\Sigma}$$

(13)

In the frame rotating with the planet, the vortensity is given by the expression $(\mathbf{\nabla} \times \mathbf{v} + 2T^p / \Sigma)$, where $T^p$ is the orbital frequency of the planet.

The gaseous disc interacts gravitationally with the planet by means of the torques generated by the spiral arms (see e.g. Goldreich and Tremaine 1979; Papaloizou and Lin 1984). Every few timesteps the contributions from the inner disc excluding the Hill sphere, outer disc excluding the Hill sphere and the torque from the material between 0.5 and 1 Hill radius to the torque are recorded. The disc mass interior and exterior to the planet orbit was also obtained with the same output frequency.

The torques were calculated in units where $a = 1$, $P = 2\pi$ and $M_\ast = 1 - \mu$ integrating over the corresponding region. In the case of a 2-dimensional disc the torque has only a vertical component which is given by

$$T_z = GM_p \int \Sigma r_p \times \frac{r_e}{(r_e^2 + \epsilon^2)^{3/2}} r dr d\phi$$

(14)

where $\Sigma$ is the surface density, $r_p$ is the planet position, $r_e$ is the distance between the planet and the fluid element.

We performed Fourier analysis of the torque data to understand the cause of the observed variability. We used a Welch windowing function (Press et al. 1992) to smooth the deviation between the initial and final amplitudes in the time series.

4 DESCRIPTION OF THE CODES
We will now discuss the codes used in the comparison. Even within the restricted field of astrophysical fluids, there are many different algorithms for computing flows. There are then different implementations of the same algorithm. We will therefore start with a discussion of the general principles of various types of codes presented in this paper, and then go on to detail particulars of each code used. This is not meant to be a general review of all the types of codes used to conduct numerical experiments in astrophysics. For more detailed information, the reader should refer to any of the plethora of books on the subject (e.g. Lane 1998; Torii 1999; LeVeque 2002).

The parameters of each code are given in Table 1, including...
Table 1. Summary of the parameters used in all codes. Column 2: name of the users of the code; col. 3: reference to detailed code description; col. 4: numerical method (upwind, high-order finite-difference, shock-capturing or SPH); col. 5: Courant number used; col. 6: type of artificial viscosity used (none, von Neumann-Richtmyer, tensor or scalar); col. 7: reference frame of hydrodynamic codes (corotating or inertial); col. 8: centre of reference frame (centre of mass of star-planet system or primary star); col. 9: position of the planet in the cell (centre, corner, arbitrary or coordinates with respect to the cell’s corner in units of the radial and azimuthal steps $dr$ and $d\phi$); col. 10: processor; col. 11: approximate execution time on a single processor in hours per 100 orbits.

| Name            | Users                  | References | Method          | Courant | Art. visc. | Frame     | Centre    | Planet | Processor     | $T_{CPU}$ (hr) |
|-----------------|------------------------|------------|-----------------|---------|------------|-----------|-----------|--------|---------------|----------------|
| NIRVANA-GDA     | G. D’Angelo            | 1          | Upwind          | 0.5     | none       | corot.    | CM        | corner | Power5 1.65 GHz | 4              |
| NIRVANA-GD      | G. Dirksen             | 1          | Upwind          | 0.67    | none       | corot.    | CM (arb.,0) | P4 2.8 GHz | 6              |
| NIRVANA-PC      | P. Cresswell           | 1          | Upwind          | 0.5     | none       | corot.    | primary (0.29,0) | P4 2.4 GHz | 11             |
| RH2D            | W. Kley                | 2          | Upwind          | 0.75    | 1.0 (bulk) | corot.    | primary (arb.,0) | P4 3 GHz    | 3.4            |
| GLOBAL          | S. Fromang             | 3          | Upwind          | 0.5     | 1.0        | corot.    | primary (arb.,0) | Xeon 3 GHz  | 16             |
| FARGO           | F. Masset              | 4,5        | Upwind          | 0.5     | 2.0 (vN-R) | corot.    | primary (0.57,0.5) | P4 2.8 GHz | 1.25           |
| GENESIS         | A. Pierens             | 4,5        | Upwind          | 0.5     | 1.0 (tensor) | corot.    | primary centre | P4 2.8 GHz | 1              |
| TRAMP-vanLeer   | H. Klahr & W. Kley     | 6          | Upwind          | 0.4     | 1.1 (vN-R) | corot.    | CM        | arb.   | Opteron 2 GHz | 16             |
| PENCIL          | W. Lyra                | 7          | High-order fin.-diff. | 0.4 | 1.0 (bulk) | inertial | CM        | arb.   | P4 2.4 GHz | 36             |
| AMRA            | P. Ciecijew & T. Plewa | 8          | Shock-capturing | 0.8    | none       | corot.    | primary (0.57,0) | Xeon 3 GHz | 21             |
| FLASH-AG        | A. Gawryszczak         | 9          | Shock-capturing | 0.8    | none       | corot.    | primary (0.57,0.5) | Athlon 2 GHz | 42             |
| FLASH-AP        | A. Peplinski           | 9          | Shock-capturing | 0.7    | none       | inertial | CM        | arb.   | Athlon 1.8 GHz |              |
| TRAMP-PPM       | H. Klahr               | 10,11      | Shock-capturing | 0.8    | none       | corot.    | primary arb. | Opteron 2 GHz | 28             |
| RODEO           | S-J. Paardekooper & G. Mellema | 12      | Shock-capturing | 0.8    | none       | corot.    | primary arb. | Athlon 1.7 GHz | 25             |
| JUPITER         | F. Masset              | 13         | Shock-capturing | 0.7    | none       | corot.    | primary (0.57,0.5) | P4 2.8 GHz | 15.3           |
| SPHTREE         | K. Rice                | 14         | SPH             | none    | bulk + shear | -        | CM        | arb.   | Opteron 1.8 GHz | 10             |
| PARASPH         | C. Schäfer & R. Speith | 15         | SPH             | none    | bulk       | -        | CM        | arb.   | Opteron 2 GHz | 250            |

References: 1: Ziegler and Yorke (1997); 2: Kley (1989); 3: Hawley and Stone (1993); 4: Masset (2000a); 5: Masset (2000b); 6: Klahr et al. (1999); 7: Brandenburg and Dobler (2002); 8: Plewa and Müller (2001); 9: Fryxell et al. (2000); 10: Blondin and Luftig (1993); 11: Colella and Woodward (1984); 12: Paardekooper and Mellema (2006); 13: Pember et al. (1995); 14: Benz (1990); 15: Schäfer et al. (2004).
Table 2. Codes that were run for the lower resolution runs of the setups defined in Section 3. The grid size for the Eulerian codes was \(n_t \times n_g = (128, 384)\) for the cylindrical grid codes and \(n_t \times n_g = (320, 320)\) for FLASH-AP and PENCIL. The number of particles was 250,000 in SPH-TREE and 300,000 in PARASPH.

| Codes            | Jupiter inviscid | Jupiter viscous | Neptune inviscid | Neptune viscous |
|------------------|------------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| NIRVANA-GDA      | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| NIRVANA-GD       | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| NIRVANA-PC       | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| RH2D             | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| GLOBAL           | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| FARGO            | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| GENESIS          | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| TRAMP-VANLEER    | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| PENCIL           | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| AMRA             | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| FLASH-AG         | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| FLASH-AP         | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| TRAMP-PPM        | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| RODEO            | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| JUPITER          | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| SPHTREE          | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| PARASPH          | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |

Table 3. Codes that were run at resolution \(n_t \times n_g = (256, 768)\) and equivalent resolutions for the Cartesian grid and SPH schemes.

| Codes            | Jupiter inviscid | Jupiter viscous | Neptune inviscid | Neptune viscous |
|------------------|------------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| NIRVANA-GD       | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| NIRVANA-PC       | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| AMRA             | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| FLASH-AP         | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| PARASPH          | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |

Table 4. Codes that were run at resolution \(n_t \times n_g = (512, 1536)\).

| Codes            | Jupiter inviscid | Jupiter viscous | Neptune inviscid | Neptune viscous |
|------------------|------------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| NIRVANA-GD       | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| RH2D             | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |
| FARGO            | ×                 | ×               | ×                | ×               |

4.1 Grid Based Codes

As the name implies, grid based codes cover the computational volume with a set of grid points at which the various flow variables (velocity, density etc.) are computed. The mesh geometry (conventionally orthogonal, although this is not absolutely required) can be chosen to reflect the underlying symmetry of the problem. This often leads to a reduction in the number of grid cells required for a particular problem, and a corresponding cut in computational time. The codes used in our problem use a reference frame centred in the centre of mass or primary as indicated in column 8 of Table 1. All the simulations centred on the primary include the indirect terms in the potential. For astrophysical (compressible flow at high Reynolds number) flows, two different approaches to solving the fluid equations are generally used. However, before we describe these, some general points should be noted.

The most important of these is the Courant-Friedrichs-Lewy (CFL) condition. Simply stated, information must not travel more than one grid cell per timestep (see, e.g. Press et al. [1992] for a mathematical derivation). In a hydrodynamics code, this translates into a restriction on the timestep, based on velocity and sound speed (some authors, e.g. Edgar and Clarke [2004], have also added an acceleration condition when appropriate). Violation of the CFL condition leads to unphysical effects, as causality is violated. When we refer to the “Courant number” in the descriptions below, we are describing an extra safety factor, beyond the formal CFL condition itself. Note, however, that the CFL condition only applies to time-explicit codes. Implicit solvers are not restricted by it, but no results based on such a code were submitted to us.

Next is the extension to multi-dimensions. Most algorithms for solving the equations of hydrodynamics have been developed for one dimensional flow. The conventional method for using a one dimensional algorithm in multiple dimensions is Strang splitting (Strang 1968): solve the 1D equations along each row of cells (the \(x_1\) direction), then solve along each column (the \(x_2\) direction), using the updated values from the \(x_1\) sweep. Formally, the \(x_1\) step should be split in two as \(\frac{1}{2}x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}x_1\), but most codes do a full step in each direction and alternate which is done first (this is sometimes called “Godunov splitting”). The Strang approach makes orthogonal co-ordinates highly desirable. To minimise the truncation errors this approach produces, the grid cells must be kept locally square.

Most codes presented here use a rotating polar grid. For these, there is an extra subtlety: the treatment of the Coriolis force. As is conventional in fluid dynamics, the simple and obvious way to include this (as an extra force) leads to incorrect angular momentum transport. Instead, the angular momentum approach of Kley (1998) must be used. On reflection, this is unsurprising: the Coriolis force simply enforces the conservation of angular momentum in a rotating frame.

Although not relevant to the comparison problem itself, many of the codes here can make use of refined meshes. High resolution is always desirable, but computationally expensive. To concentrate grid cells where they are needed, patches of the grid may be calculated at higher resolution, and the results communicated back to the coarser parent grid. Patches can themselves be patched, giving the potential for extremely high resolution. If the patches are determined at the start of a calculation, such a code is said to be of the ‘nested grid’ type. However, some codes can dynamically add and remove patches. This is known as adaptive mesh refinement (AMR). For this comparison, we have chosen not to use refined meshes. This is in the interests of simplicity, since there are a variety of algorithms for performing the refinement, and we are already comparing a large number of codes. However, we would encourage other workers in the field to compare refinement methods.

4.1.1 Upwind Methods

The upwind codes used in this comparison work by discretising the appropriate version of the Navier-Stokes equations, and solving that. These codes use the technique of operator splitting, and some operators are discretised in a finite difference manner, while others are solved with a finite volume method. For this reason, codes simi-
lar to those we shall now discuss are sometimes referred to as ‘finite difference/volume’ schemes, or even just ‘finite difference.’ We eschew this epithet, since almost any grid code could be described as ‘finite difference’ at some level.

In a typical operator split scheme, each timestep is split into two phases. During the source step, the velocity is updated using the source terms in the Navier-Stokes equations (pressure gradients, gravity etc.). In the transport step, these velocities are then used to advect (the $\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}$ terms) the other quantities. This is usually done conservatively using the integral form of the equations (integrated over a volume - hence the name). During the advection step, second order ‘upwinding’ is used (interpolation based on velocities), to ensure that shocks remain sharp. Some sort of artificial viscosity is generally required to stop post-shock oscillations making the code unstable.

These codes usually use a staggered mesh, to improve the order of their differencing. Scalar variables (such as density) are stored at zone centres, while vector quantities are stored at the faces (e.g. $v_1$ is stored at the centre of the $x_1$ face).

Codes like these are often described as being ‘ZEUS-like’ - a reference to the ZEUS code of Stone and Norman (1992). Although that paper provides an excellent description of the methods used, the epithet ‘ZEUS-like’ does not generally mean “derived from ZEUS.” Rather, they are based on the same or similar algorithms, and ZEUS happens to be the best known implementation of these.

4.1.1.1 The NIRVANA code In this comparison, three sets of results were submitted which made use of the NIRVANA code of Ziegler and Yorks (1997). All of the following codes are based on the original version of NIRVANA, which was not publically released. Each of the codes was enhanced from the original code base by different groups over a number of years. Hence, variations between the NIRVANA codes highlight how even the same basic algorithm can vary. Different Courant numbers were also used - NIRVANA-GD used 2/3, while NIRVANA-GDA and NIRVANA-PC used 1/2.

4.1.1.2 The RH2D code The RH2D code is two-dimensional mixed explicit/implicit 2nd order upwind algorithm on a staggered grid. The advection algorithm is based on the monotonic transport scheme by van Leer (1977). The RH2D code can treat radiation transport in the flux-limited diffusion approximation, and includes the full tensor viscosity with dissipation. In contrast to some other codes the velocity variables that are evolved in RH2D are radial $v$ and angular velocity $\Omega$. Both radiation and viscosity can be solved implicitly to avoid possible time-step limitations. We refer the reader to Kley (1999) for a full description of the code. For the purpose of the present calculations the radiation module was replaced by a locally isothermal equation of state. The viscosity was solved explicitly. The formulation of the equations, in particular the treatment of the physical and artificial viscosity in the stress tensor components, has been described with respect to the embedded planet problem in detail by Kley (1999).

4.1.1.3 The GLOBAL code The GLOBAL code (Hawley and Stone 1995) is derived from ZEUS (Stone and Norman 1992). The Courant number was 0.5, and an artificial viscosity coefficient of 1.0 was required to stabilise wave propagation in the disc.

4.1.1.4 The FARGO code FARGO is a simple 2D polar mesh code dedicated to disc planet interactions. It is based upon a standard, ZEUS-like hydrodynamic solver, but owes its name to the FARGO algorithm upon which the azimuthal advection is based (Masset 2000). This algorithm avoids the restrictive timestep typically imposed by the rapidly rotating inner regions of the disc, by permitting each annulus of cells to rotate at its local Keplerian velocity and stitching the results together again at the end of the timestep. The use of the FARGO algorithm typically lifts the timestep by an order of magnitude, and therefore speeds up the calculation accordingly. The mesh centre lies at the primary, so indirect terms coming from the planets and the disk are included in the potential calculation. The Courant number was 0.5, and a second order artificial viscosity of $C_2 = 2$ (cf equations 33 and 34 of Stone and Norman) was used.

The standard boundary conditions prescribed in the test problem were used. In addition, the dependence of the results on the damping condition was tested using a slightly different boundary. A transmitted wave boundary condition was used. The pitch angle of the wake at the inner and outer boundary was evaluated using the WKB approximation. The content of the border ring was then copied into the ghost ring, properly azimuthally shifted by the amount dictated by the pitch angle. This technique is very efficient at removing any reflected wave and yields similar results to the standard boundary condition described in Section 4.2.

4.1.1.5 The GENESIS code GENESIS is a 2D code which solves the fluid equations using a upwind method with a time-explicit, operator-splitting procedure. The FARGO algorithm (see description above) is applied to avoid the timestep limitation at the inner edge of the disc. Because of this, the code does not alternate radial and azimuthal integrations. Artificial viscosity is handled by using a bulk viscosity in the viscous stress tensor (Kley 1999).

4.1.1.6 The TRAMP-VANLEE code This is a 3D version of RH2D (see above) with the same second order van-Leer scheme (similar to that used in the ZEUS and NIRVANA codes). Klahr et al. (1999) provide a description. The fact that the code is intrinsically 3D explains why it performs two times slower than the pure 2D version RH2D. We use a moderate value of 1.1 for the von Neumann-Richtmyer type viscosity. The implementation works in the corotating frame where the centre of mass is the centre of the coordinate system. Hence no extra acceleration terms are necessary.

4.1.2 High-Order Finite-Difference Methods

4.1.2.1 The PENCIL code Pencil is a non-conservative finite-difference code that uses sixth order centred spatial derivatives and a third order Runge-Kutta time-stepping scheme, being primarily designed to deal with compressible turbulent magnetohydrodynamical flows. Being high-order, Pencil needs viscosity and diffusivity terms in order to stabilize the numerical scheme. For this reason, we could not perform inviscid runs.

The code is intrinsically 3D and Cartesian, structured in a cache-efficient way. The domain is tiled in the y and z direction for parallelization, with the original 3D quantities being split into 1D parallelization, with the original 3D quantities being split into 1D
arrays - pencils - in the x direction, hence the name of the code. The equations are solved along these pencils in the x direction, which leads to the convenient side-effect that auxiliary and derived variables use very little memory as they are only ever defined on one pencil. By calculating an entire timestep in the x-direction along the box, Pencil can achieve a speed-up of ~60% on typical Linux architectures.

This is the first time Pencil has been applied to the embedded planet problem.

4.1.3 Shock-Capturing Methods

The other scheme for grid-based astrophysical fluid flows in common use is that proposed by Godunov (1959). Such schemes make use of the fact that there is an analytic solution to the 1D shock tube problem: the so-called Riemann problem. Godunov’s original scheme treated each cell as piecewise-constant (i.e. variables such as density were assumed to be constant throughout the cell), giving a sharp shock at each interface. Colella and Woodward (1984) improved Godunov’s method by using parabolic interpolation, giving the ‘piecewise parabolic method’ (PPM) which is the most common implementation in use today. Implementations of PPM can be in Eulerian or Lagrangian form. For the purposes of the interpolation, all values are stored at the cell centres (cf the staggered grids mentioned above). Shock-capturing codes include the pressure gradient in the basic solver. Since solving the full Riemann problem is computationally expensive, many codes use an approximate solver. Furthermore, to deal with strictly isothermal flows, a special isothermal Riemann solver must be written, since the conventional one involves γ − 1 denominators.

Shock-capturing schemes do not usually require any artificial viscosity to ensure stability (sometimes authors will include a small artificial viscosity to prevent post-shock oscillations, but these oscillations do not usually threaten the stability of the code). Although this is welcome, it should be noted that most implementations contain other ‘artificial’ parts (such as slope limiters used in the interpolations), and any user of a code must bear these in mind.

4.1.3.1 The AMRA code

AMRA is an AMR code developed by Plewa and Müller (2001). For the disk-planet interaction problem we used the HERAKLES solver which is an implementation of the PPM algorithm. HERAKLES was derived from PROMETHEUS (Fryxell et al. 1989) and provides all the functionality of its predecessor. The original Riemann solver for complex equations of state was replaced by a much simpler non-iterative (but still exact) version suited for isothermal flows (Baharad 1994). All problems were computed with Courant number of 0.8. The planet was placed in the corner of a grid cell, to make the grid layout around it as symmetric as possible.

4.1.3.2 The FLASH code

The FLASH code (Fryxell et al. 2000) is an AMR code implementing the PPM algorithm in its Direct Eulerian form. The Riemann solver was ported from the AMRA code. Two sets of results used FLASH, and we shall refer to these as FLASH-AG and FLASH-AP.

The FLASH-AG code was based on release 2.3 of FLASH. We patched the code to work as accurately as possible in polar coordinates, particularly enforcing the conservative transport of angular momentum. The Courant number was 0.8 in the simulations presented here.

Instead of running in polar co-ordinates, the FLASH-AP version of the code used the original Cartesian formulation of FLASH. The grid cells were sized to give the same radial resolution, although since the grid went to r = 0, the grid size had to be larger than in the cylindrical schemes to achieve the same resolution. The code was run at resolution $n_x \times n_y = (320, 320)$ and $n_x \times n_y = (640, 640)$. The boundaries were open and there was free gas flow inside 0.4a. The damping condition described in Section 5.2 was applied on the outer boundary ring but not in the inner disc. The Cartesian grid was fixed in space, and the planet and star were free to move over it (integrated using a simple Runge-Kutta method). A Courant number of 0.7 was used in the simulations.

4.1.3.3 The RODEO code

This code uses the approximate Riemann solver suggested by Roe (1981), and extended by Eulderink and Mellema (1995) to general non-inertial, curvi-linear coordinate systems. The limiter function used is “superbee”, and unlike PPM-type approaches, limits the characteristic variables, rather than the primitive variables. The code uses an AMR scheme similar to PARAMESH (used in the FLASH code). The source terms are handled through the so-called stationary extrapolation method (Eulderink and Mellema 1995), which ensures that physically stationary solutions remain stationary. The equation of state was strictly isothermal. A full description can be found in Paardekooper and Mellema (2005).

4.1.3.4 The JUPITER code

The JUPITER code is a nested grid Godunov code, that can be used in Cartesian, cylindrical or spherical geometry, either in 1D, 2D or 3D. The JUPITER code uses a ‘two shock’ Riemann solver, which assumes that the two waves leaving the interface are shockwaves (Toro 1999) (the code can also use a ‘two rarefaction’ solver, or a full iterative one). The rest of the Riemann solver (the sampling of the Riemann fan) is exact. Assuming that the two waves are shockwaves is not so bad as it might first appear. Firstly, some initial Riemann states do give rise to two shockwaves. Secondly, the differences from the full Riemann solution are relatively small, so long as the contrast across the interface is not extreme. In extra tests (not included here), the differences between a ‘two shock,’ ‘two rarefaction’ and full Riemann solver were found to be slight for our comparison problem. The predictor step (which provides the left and right states of the Riemann problem at the zone interface) is a linear piecewise characteristic method using the monotonized centred slope limiter, and which uses a slope splitting technique (Pember et al. 1995). The full viscous stress tensor is conservatively implemented in the three geometries. No artificial viscosity was required, and the Courant number was 0.7.

4.1.3.5 The TRAMP-PPM code

TRAMP-PPM is a Lagrangian remap7 PPM (Woodward and Colella 1984) code. It is based on the routines provided in the VH-1 package, modified for accretion disk simulations (Blondin and Lufkin 1993). The modifications involve adding the conservation of angular momentum and equations to treat the evolution of internal energy. Here always the full Riemann problem is solved iteratively and we approximate the

---

6 FLASH is available at http://www.flash.uchicago.edu/

7 Cell boundaries are allowed to move during the advection step, and the results are then interpolated back onto the fixed grid.
isothermal case with $\gamma = 1 + 10^{-10}$. In the current isothermal simulations the PPM code does not use any artificial viscosity. This implementation works in the corotating frame where the star is the centre of the coordinate system, and hence explicitly incorporates the extra acceleration terms due to the offset from the centre of mass.

4.2 Particle Based Codes

Rather than trying to solve the equations of hydrodynamics on a grid, a second group of codes decompose a fluid into small packets of mass (particles), and then follow their evolution. The method in most common use today is that of Smoothed Particle Hydrodynamics (SPH), developed independently by Lucy (1977) and Gingold and Monaghan (1977). We shall describe the basic characteristics of SPH now. For a more detailed treatment, the reader should consult Benz (1990); Monaghan (1992) and references therein and thereto.

In SPH, each particle’s properties are spread (or smoothed) over a small volume of space contained within a smoothing length, $h$. For example, smoothing the particle’s mass gives its contribution to the density at each point in space. The smoothing function (or kernel), $W(r,h)$, is not constant, but increases towards the particle’s position (assumed to be $r = 0$). In the limit $h \rightarrow 0$, $W$ becomes a $\delta$-function, and perfect fluid behaviour is obtained (with an infinite number of particles). A Gaussian would be a possible choice for $W$, but compact kernels (where $W = 0$ for $r$ greater than some $r_{\text{max}}$) are preferred for computational simplicity. Particles within the range of the compact kernel are called the neighbours. When appropriate to the problem, modern SPH codes will allow each particle to have its own smoothing length, chosen to keep the number of neighbours constant (typically a few tens). The smoothing length is also used to limit the timestep in a way similar to the CFL condition mentioned above.

The major advantage of SPH is that its particle nature makes it fully Lagrangian: there are no advective terms in the equations of motion. This makes the codes more straightforward to write and understand. Since high densities imply that more particles are present, SPH naturally concentrates resolution in high density regions. Good use can be made of this in collapse simulations (e.g. Delgado-Donate et al. 2003).

However, there are disadvantages too. Foremost is the matter of viscosity. SPH requires an artificial viscosity to prevent inter-particle penetration, and this tends to make SPH codes quite dissipative. Resolution can also be a problem in certain calculations. For example, in the disc calculations presented here, most of the particles are going to be in the outer portions of the disc, and not doing very much. Also, the details of the gap are of most interest, and SPH will have fewer particles there.

4.2.1 The SPHTREE code

This code owes its name to the tree used to locate particle neighbours. The calculations presented here used 250 000 particles for the disc, with the star and planet being point masses. SPH particles that move to within an accretion radius of either the star or planet are accreted (Bate et al. 1995), but in the case of the planet, once the initial ramp up is complete, we do not allow its mass to increase. We use the standard SPH viscosity (e.g. Monaghan 1992), with $\alpha = 0.1$ and $\beta = 0.2$, but also can include the Balsara switch (Balsara 1995) to reduce the shear component of the artificial viscosity (see also Lodato and Rice 2004). A huge saving in computational time is obtained by using individual particle timesteps (Bate et al. 1995) with the time-steps for each particle limited by the Courant condition, a force condition (Monaghan 1992) and a Runge-Kutta integrator accuracy condition.

4.2.2 The PARASPH code

ParaSPH is a parallelized (using MPI) smooth particle hydrodynamics code. It follows the approach of Fiehle et al. (1994), solving the Navier-Stokes equation including the entire viscous stress tensor. In contrast to the usual approach of an artificial viscosity of Monaghan and Gingold (1983), we use an artificial bulk viscosity. This allows for an accurate treatment of the physical shear viscosity and for easy comparison to the grid code results, since a constant kinematic viscosity coefficient can be modeled. Additionally we use the XSPH device to prevent particles from mutual penetration (see e.g. Monaghan 1992). Variable smoothing lengths keep the number of neighbours at 75. The time integration is performed using a fourth order Runge-Kutta-Cash-Karp integrator for both the particles and the planet. The code is described in more detail in Schäfer et al. (2004).

We do not implement exactly the boundary conditions described in sect. 3.2. Instead we add virtual particles to the simulation. They are assigned all physical relevant quantities, such as density, velocity and so on, but are kept in Keplerian orbit about the star. By their interactions, the virtual particles prevent the SPH particles from escaping. For the calculations presented here, we used 300 000 SPH particles and 50 000 boundary particles.

5 RESULTS

In this section we present the results for each of the runs. The simulations are run for up to 500 orbital periods using the codes described in Section 4. We compare the contours of surface density, vortensity and averaged density profiles obtained in the numerical calculations at several times. The time evolution of the grid mass and gravitational torque acting on the planet are shown divided in several contributions. The Fourier transform of the torques is calculated to investigate the influence of vortices and disc eccentricity on the torque acting on the planet. Several basic properties of the disc-planet system are discussed based on the agreement between the codes. In Section 5.5, we study how the difference between the codes change as the numerical resolution increases.

The comparative surface density and vortensity maps are shown for each scheme in the order they appear in Section 4. Note that TRAMP-PPM and TRAMP-VANLeer were only run for the inviscid setups, while SPHTREE and PENCIL were run for the viscous cases (see Table 4). Figure 1 shows the legend used in the surface density profiles, mass and torque evolution plots in this Section. Different types of algorithms are plotted with different intendes.

5.1 Inviscid Jupiter

Firstly we consider the case of a Jupiter embedded in an inviscid disc. The planet fixed at a given radius opens a deep gap in the disc as predicted by standard theory (Lin and Papaloizou 1986).
Figure 2. Density contours in logarithmic scale after 100 orbits for the inviscid Jupiter simulations with overplotted theoretical prediction of the planetary wake position. The codes are presented in the same order as in Section 4. The upwind methods’ results are displayed in the first panels followed by the shock-capturing codes and lastly the particle based codes. The density scale ranges between $-1.7 < \log(\Sigma/\Sigma_0) < 1$. 
A comparative study of disc-planet interaction

Figure 1. Common legend for the comparative plots in section 5. Upwind codes are represented by solid lines, shock-capturing codes by dotted lines and SPH codes by dashed lines.

Ward and Hahn 2002. The contrast between the initial density and the deepest regions in the gap is about 2 orders of magnitude after 100 orbits. The planet forms strong trailing spiral arms due to the differential Keplerian rotation close to the Lindblad resonances. Low density regions start to develop behind the shocks where the fluid elements encounter the shock at high pitch angle and change their trajectory. These regions travel in horseshoe orbits in the corotation region clearing the gap as described in Korycansky and Papaloizou 1990 and creating locked fluid areas at the Lagrangian points inside the gap.

Figure 2 shows the density contours at 100 orbits for all the codes. The dashed line represents the theoretical position of the shock wave predicted by Ogilvie and Lubow 2002. In the Jupiter simulations, the planet mass is too high for this theoretical estimation but it allows us to compare the spiral arms pitch angle between the simulations. The planetary wake is weak and almost not visible in the grid codes. The existence of secondary shocks and the tightness of the spirals depend primarily on the equation of state used in FLASH-AG, AMRA, RODEO and TRAMP-PPM simulations and generate their own spiral shocks which extend into the disc. Most of the codes show one or several smaller density excesses at the inner edge. The vortices in the outer disc interact with the planetary shock and generate quasi-periodic oscillations in the spiral arms. The oscillations could also be produced by instabilities near the planet that interact with the blobs moving along the edge of the gap and are propagated along the shocks. Reflected waves appear in the NIRVANA-GDA, AMRA, FLASH-AG and TRAMP-PPM codes have two bumps which eventually merge by 200 periods. The knots are dominant in the AMRA, RODEO and TRAMP-PPM simulations and generate their own spiral shocks which extend into the disc. Most of the codes show one or several smaller density excesses at the inner edge. The vortices in the outer disc are more depleted by the AMRA code. FLASH-AP has a more depleted inner disc due to the open inner boundary condition implemented in Cartesian coordinates. The Cartesian geometry is also more diffusive in this problem and has a lower resolution close to the primary compared with the polar coordinates codes. On the other hand, the shape of the outer disc in FLASH-AP’s profiles is similar to the cylindrical codes profiles. A wider gap is seen in the PARASPH simulations. The oscillations seen in the outer disc are also consistent in all the codes with a local maximum in the FLASH-AP profile at 2a. The density peaks close to the edges of the gap — specially in the inner disk — have a larger spread which is associated with the size of the vortices. Shock-capturing codes have smaller vortices in the outer edge than the upwind methods. The maximum at the planet location is higher on average for the shock-capturing codes.

Figure 3 shows the vortensity contours calculated in the corotating frame for the different models. There are bumps rotating along the edges of the gap opened by the planet in the grid codes in cylindrical coordinates which survive until the end of the simulations. The resolution does not permit us to determine whether these density lumps have locally rotating flow around the core of the vortex. The vortices are larger in the upwind schemes. After 100 periods, most codes show a single bump rotating along the outer edge, although NIRVANA-GDA, AMRA, FLASH-AG and TRAMP-PPM have two bumps which eventually merge by 200 periods. The knots are dominant in the AMRA, RODEO and TRAMP-PPM simulations and generate their own spiral shocks which extend into the disc. Most of the codes show one or several smaller density excesses at the inner edge. The vortices in the outer disc interact with the planetary shock and generate quasi-periodic oscillations in the spiral arms. The oscillations could also be produced by instabilities near the planet that interact with the blobs moving along the edge of the gap and are propagated along the shocks. Reflected waves appear in the NIRVANA-GDA, AMRA, FLASH-AG and TRAMP-PPM codes have most of the mass loss in the inner disc.

The azimuthally averaged density profiles and their residuals, normalized by the disc mass after 100 orbits are plotted in Figure 4. Note that the relevant portion of the domain is that between 0.5 and 2.1 a, since wave killing conditions are implemented next to the inner and outer boundaries. The depth and width of the gap is in good agreement for the grid based models, with a slightly wider gap for the AMRA code. FLASH-AP has a more depleted inner disc due to the open inner boundary condition implemented in Cartesian coordinates. The Cartesian geometry is also more diffusive in this problem and has a lower resolution close to the primary compared with the polar coordinates codes. On the other hand, the shape of the outer disc in FLASH-AP’s profiles is similar to the cylindrical codes profiles. A wider gap is seen in the PARASPH simulations. The oscillations seen in the outer disc are also consistent in all the codes with a local maximum in the FLASH-AP profile at 2a. The density peaks close to the edges of the gap — specially in the inner disk — have a larger spread which is associated with the size of the vortices. Shock-capturing codes have smaller vortices in the outer edge than the upwind methods. The maximum at the planet location is higher on average for the shock-capturing codes. The PARASPH code has smoother profiles farther away from the planet position due to the fact that the planetary wakes are smeared out. The residuals of the averaged profiles divided by the disc mass with respect to the mean value are shown in the bottom panel in Figure 4. Since the total disc mass is different after 100 orbits for the various models, the density profiles normalized by the disc mass have in general a better agreement. However, the PARASPH and FLASH-AP codes have most of the mass loss in the inner disc.
Figure 3. Vortensity contours in logarithmic scale after 100 orbits for the inviscid Jupiter models. The vortensity range is $-0.5 < \log(\xi) < 2$. 
A comparative study of disc-planet interaction

Figure 4. The upper panel shows the normalized surface density profiles averaged azimuthally over $2\pi$ after 100 orbits for the inviscid Jupiter runs. In the lower panel, the differences between each model and the mean value are shown in logarithmic scale as $\log(\Sigma/M_{\text{disc}}) - \langle \log(\Sigma/M_{\text{disc}}) \rangle$, where the angle brackets represent the mean. The surface density has been divided by the disc mass at 100 periods to remove the dependence on the mass loss due to the boundary conditions.

and this method may artificially increase their residuals in the outer disc.

We plot the density slices opposite to the planet after 100 orbits in Figure 5. The width and depth of the gap agree well for the different codes but with a larger dispersion than in the averaged profile. The amplitude of the peaks at the edges of the gap differ since there are vortices which have different sizes and positions with respect to the planet at a given time. On the other hand, the size and the position of the wave crests agree within a few percent.

In Figure 5, the azimuthal cuts of the surface density maps at the planet radius are displayed. There is a sharp density spike at the planet position. The shape and position of the density bumps at $L_4$ and $L_5$ is slightly asymmetric. The peak at the trailing Lagrangian point $L_5$ is larger than at the leading $L_4$ point for all Eulerian codes, with more conspicuous peaks and larger asymmetry in the shock-capturing schemes. In the FLASH-AP results there are asymmetric bumps at the Lagrangian points in the beginning of the simulation, but they have disappeared at 100 periods. In the PARASPH calculation the gap is almost completely cleared and no bumps at the Lagrangian points are observed. PARASPH has also a smaller peak at the planet location.

The disc mass loss rate evolution is plotted in Figure 7 for the Eulerian codes. The total disc mass is not conserved due to the wave damping condition described in section 3.2. There is a larger mass loss rate in the FLASH-AP code owing to the mass accretion in the inner disc but it reaches an equilibrium value consistent with the cylindrical codes at late times. Some codes gain mass at the beginning of the simulation and start losing mass after about 10 orbits. The total mass after 200 orbits is reduced by about 8% in the AMRA and FLASH-AG codes which use shock-capturing algorithms. Other codes like NIRVANA-GDA, NIRVANA-GD and RH2D show a smaller mass loss of about 3%. The outer disc mass decreases slowly and in some codes like JUPITER it remains almost constant during 200 orbits. During the first few orbits, when the gap is not completely cleared, there is material flowing from the outer to the inner disc perhaps due to the artificial viscosity. The inner disc mass shows a strong decrease, especially in the shock-capturing codes. Despite the spread in mass loss for different codes, the surface density do not show strong variations between the codes.

The waves excited by the planet deposit angular momentum in the disc when they are dissipated. There is an initial smooth phase where the torque increases in absolute value during the first few
orbits while the planet is growing. Afterwards, the torques start to display strong oscillations at the time when the vortices are created. Vortices grow due to the steep gradients at the gap edges and through interaction with the planetary wakes. We do not have enough time resolution in the density snapshots to follow the vortex formation and evolution. The mean value decreases slightly in most codes until the point when the gap is completely cleared and stays roughly constant up to the end of the simulation. The effect of the large torque oscillations on the planet migration needs to be studied with a free moving planet.

The torque from within the Roche lobe show significant differences between the codes. The density has a local maximum at the planet location which depends on the interpolation order of the code, although the total mass inside the Roche lobe is similar. The planet is not located in a cell’s corner in all codes and this causes asymmetries in the mass distribution around the planet. In addition, the region close to the planet is not well resolved at our resolution. The time evolution of the gravitational torque acting on the planet is shown in Figure 9 divided in inner, outer disc and total contributions. A running time average over 10 orbital periods has been applied to the data to avoid large oscillations. The torque order of magnitude and sign agrees for all the codes after 200 orbits except for TRAMP-PPM which has a value close to zero. The averaged values at the end of the simulation are given in Table 5.

In the following discussion, we compare the torques excluding the contribution from the Roche lobe.

Figure 8 shows the profiles of the derivative of the total torque excluding the Hill sphere with respect to the radius. The time dependence of the vortices position with respect to the planet produces a rapidly changing torque. Therefore, the different codes have different specific torque profiles at a given time. The variation appears close to the gap edges where most of the angular momentum is deposited. The differences are larger at the outer edge position where the vortices are bigger than at the inner edge. On the other hand, farther away from the planet position the torques are remarkably similar for all the codes.

Table 5. Averaged gravitational torques between 175–200 periods in units of $\alpha = 1$, $P = 2\pi$ and $M_r = 1 - \mu$ for the Jupiter inviscid simulations at the end of the simulations. The time is given in orbital periods of the planet.

| Code          | Torque              |
|---------------|---------------------|
| NIRVANA-GDA   | $-1.452354 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| NIRVANA-PC    | $-1.512417 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| RH2D          | $-1.930871 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| GLOBAL        | $-1.550768 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| GENESIS       | $-1.565123 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| TRAMP-VANLEER | $-1.818716 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| AMRA          | $-3.769203 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| FLASH-AG      | $-7.014221 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| FLASH-AP      | $-2.187462 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| RODEO         | $-1.880762 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| JUPITER       | $-2.721250 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| TRAMP-PPM     | $5.611237 \times 10^{-6}$ |

The time evolution of the gravitational torque acting on the planet is shown in Figure 9. The panels show the low frequency part of the power spectrum in logarithmic scale. The semi-periodic oscillations associated with vortices rotating along the gap edges are present in the PDSs for models where blobs appear in the density maps next to the gap. Several peaks appear in the outer disc PDS with frequency corresponding to roughly 0.4 times the planet’s orbital frequency with several harmonics. This frequency is the difference between the planet’s orbital frequency and the angular velocity of the high density regions moving next to the gap. Assuming that the density jumps orbit the central star with Keplerian speed, the position of the blob estimated from the PDS frequency is about $1.4\alpha$, in agreement with the center of the blobs observed in the density maps. The harmonics possibly appear because the potential of an extended density blob is not sinusoidal and creates amplified multiple frequencies. In some codes, there are several vortices next to the outer...
edge which perturb the planet with the same frequency but different phase. In the inner disc contribution PDS, there are several codes with peaks at about 0.7 times the planet’s orbital frequency and its harmonics. The estimated blob position is about 0.7a, which again agrees with the center of the vortices observed next to the inner edge of the gap in the density maps.

The PDSs of the torque from the material inside the Roche lobe show high frequency quasi-periodic variations at about 20 times the planet orbital frequency. This high frequency oscillations...
may be caused by the circumplanetary disc which makes several orbits around the planet within the planet orbital period although the region is poorly resolved at our resolution. There is a local maximum in density inside the Roche lobe and the material gives a leading contribution to the total torque acting on the planet.

5.2 Viscous Jupiter

The density contours for Jupiter in a disc with Navier-Stokes viscosity \( \nu = 10^{-5} \) are shown after 100 orbits for all the codes in Figure 10. The planet opens a narrower gap in the disc in this case. The flow is much smoother than in the inviscid calculation and the blobs moving along the gap are not observed. The density enhancements seen at the Lagrangian points inside the gap in the inviscid calculations are not present. The spiral arms generated by the planet are stationary. The filamentary structure that appeared in the inviscid Jupiter runs in the shock-capturing codes is reduced in amplitude. The reduction is stronger in FLASH-AG and FLASH-AP results than in AMRA which uses a different dissipation algorithm.

In Figure 11 we plot the vortensity for the viscous Jupiter case. The maps are smooth compared with the inviscid simulations and vortices are not visible in the logarithmic scale. Reflected waves are visible in the NIRVANA-GDA, RH2D, GLOBAL and GENESIS results despite the use of the wave killing zones.

In Figure 12 we show the azimuthally averaged density profiles and normalized residuals after 100 orbits. The depth and width of the gap agree well for the grid codes with a shallower gap in the FLASH-AP code. The gap is wider and deeper in the PARASPH simulation. The SPHTREE code has a small peak at the planet radius and the inner disc is depleted due to mass loss. An asymmetric gap structure is observed in most codes with a deeper dent outside the planet’s orbit. The oscillations in the outer disc have disappeared in the grid codes or have been reduced considerably by the viscosity. The differences of the averaged profiles with respect to the mean value are shown in Figure 12.

We plot the surface density profiles at \( \phi = \pi \) after 100 orbits in Figure 13. The peaks at the edges of the gap agree well since there are no vortices in the viscous runs and the spiral arms are weaker. Due to the viscosity, the gap is narrower and shallower than in the inviscid case. The shape of the spiral arms agree within a few percent for the grid based codes. The SPH codes agree in the general shape of the density profile but have weaker spiral waves. SPHTREE has a density peak in the middle of the gap opposite from the planet.

In Figure 14 we plot the azimuthal cuts of the surface density maps at the centre of the gap. A sharp density spike is seen at the planet position in all codes. The density bumps at the equilibrium
Figure 10. Density contours after 100 orbits for the viscous Jupiter simulations. The dashed line is the estimated theoretical position of the planetary shocks. The density range is again $-1.7 < \log(\Sigma/\Sigma_0) < 1$. 
Figure 11. Vortensity maps for the viscous Jupiter case after 100 orbits. The logarithmic scale is $-0.5 < \log(\zeta) < 2$. 

18  M. de Val-Borro et al.
points inside the gap have disappeared. Most of the grid codes show a constant density of about 15% of the initial value. PARASPH has a lower density than the grid codes, while SPHTREE shows a density about twice as large as the grid codes. The presence of oscillations in the SPHTREE azimuthal profile may be explained because the number of particles is too small to resolve the gap. The effective resolution after projection in the radial range \[0.4a, 2.5a\] is smaller than in the grid simulations since the radial domain extends until 10a and at the end of the simulation a significant fraction of the particles has been accreted.

We plot the evolution of the disc mass loss rate in Figure 15. In Figure 16 the profiles of the specific total torque excluding the Hill sphere are shown. The total mass loss after 200 orbits shows better agreement than in the inviscid case. Upwind schemes show a reduction of about 5% of the initial mass, while RODEO, AMRA and FLASH-AG codes lose close to 8% of their mass. During the first few orbits, there is again gas flow from the outer to the inner disc when the gap is not cleared. The outer disc mass decreases slowly for some codes while others present an increase of roughly 1%. There is a substantial decrease in the inner disc mass with an agreement of approximately 10% between the different models.

The amplitude of the torque oscillations are smaller compared with the inviscid runs. There is again an initial stage where the torque increases in absolute value while the planet mass is increasing. The torques start to oscillate at about 10 orbits and later possibly due to the formation of small vortices or eccentricity of the disc. In most codes the oscillations decrease and become very small by the end of the simulation.

In Figure 16 the profiles of the specific total torque excluding the Hill sphere are shown. The profiles show a much better agreement than in the inviscid Jupiter simulations. In the viscous case, vortices are not observed in the density maps after 100 orbits and the torque radial profiles are not time dependent. There is a dominant contribution from the corotating region in the grid-based schemes from the exchange of angular momentum with gas flowing in horseshoe orbits, although the material inside the Roche lobe is not considered. The outer disc gives a negative torque contribution on the planet driving inwards migration and the inner disc produces a positive torque that pushes the planet outwards. The profiles of the polar coordinates codes agree within a few percent.

The time average of the torque acting on the planet and their PDSs are shown in Figure 17. The plots show low frequency part of the PDSs in logarithmic scale. There is a peak at 0.3 times the planet’s orbital frequency and several multiples in the outer disc PDS. In some models, there is also a small peak at the same frequency in the PDS form the inner disc. This quasi-periodic oscillations may be produced by vortices appearing during the first orbits of the simulation and eventually removed by the viscosity. Other possible explanations are asymmetry in the edge of the gap or slight eccentricity of the disc.

The torque from the gas inside the Hill sphere presents again a power spectrum with high frequency peaks at several times the Keplerian frequency at the planet radius. The smoothing length is close to half of the Hill radius and the resolution in the Roche lobe is low to study the possible presence of a circumplanetary disc rotating at high angular frequency.

5.3 Inviscid Neptune

The dip opened by Neptune after 100 orbital periods is much shallower than for the Jupiter case. The surface density maps are plotted in Figure 18 for a Neptune mass planet embedded in an inviscid disc. The spiral arms created by the planet are significantly weaker than in the Jupiter calculations and are in better agreement with the theoretical prediction of the shock positions shown by the dashed line. In the SPH simulations the shocks are extremely weak. There are no overdense regions around the Lagrangian points inside the gap in any of the calculations since the gap is not deep enough. Along the edge of the gap there are several blobs in the AMRA, RODEO and TRAMP-PPM results, which are smaller than in the
Figure 17. Running time averaged torques for the viscous Jupiter simulations and the corresponding PDSs of the raw data. The plots are shown in the same order as in Figure 9. All the figures exclude the Roche lobe contribution.

The comparative vortensity maps in the corotating frame are shown in Figure 19. Vortices moving along the gap are observed in the grid codes, although they are smaller than in the Jupiter case.

The azimuthally averaged density profiles after 100 orbits are plotted in Figure 20. The depth and width of the gap is again in fairly good agreement for the Eulerian codes. FLASH-AG’s gap is shallower than the other grid based codes. PARASPH has a wider and deeper gap than the grid models and a depleted inner disc. The gap profile of the Eulerian codes is slightly asymmetric with the
Figure 18. Surface density contours after 100 orbits for the inviscid Neptune simulations. The theoretical estimation of the spiral wakes is represented by the dashed line. The density scale ranges between $-0.4 < \log(\Sigma/\Sigma_0) < 0.3$. 

A comparative study of disc-planet interaction
Figure 19. Vortensity contours in logarithmic scale after 100 orbits for the inviscid Neptune calculations. The vortensity range is $-0.1 < \log(\zeta) < 1$. 

$\copyright$ 2005 RAS, MNRAS
A comparative study of disc-planet interaction

Table 6. Averaged torques between 175–200 periods in units where $a = 1$, $P = 2\pi$ and $M* = 1 - \mu$ for the Jupiter viscous simulations.

| Code          | Torque                  |
|---------------|-------------------------|
| NIRVANA-GDA   | $-7.279010 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| NIRVANA-PC    | $-8.591188 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| RH2D          | $-7.895477 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| GLOBAL        | $-5.424962 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| GENESIS       | $-7.980679 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| PENCIL        | $-1.265820 \times 10^{-4}$ |
| AMRA          | $-7.269365 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| FLASH-AG      | $-9.288739 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| FLASH-AP      | $-6.681127 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| RODEO         | $-1.061018 \times 10^{-4}$ |
| JUPITER       | $-8.067247 \times 10^{-5}$ |

Figure 20. Surface density profiles averaged azimuthally over $2\pi$ after 100 orbits for the inviscid Neptune runs are shown in the upper panel. The residuals in the lower panel are defined as in Figure 4.

Figure 21. Surface density profiles opposite to the planet position after 100 orbits for the inviscid Neptune runs.

Figure 22. Surface density azimuthal slice at the planet location after 100 orbits for the inviscid Neptune calculations.

The rest of grid codes show a density decrease of about 10-20%. PARASPH has the lowest density inside the gap with a decrease of about 60% from the initial value.

Figure 23 shows the grid mass loss rate as a function of time for the grid-based codes. All models show total mass loss due to the wave killing condition. The FLASH-AP code has mass loss in the inner disc due to the absence of a solid inner boundary in Cartesian coordinates but converges to a value of a few times $10^{-5}$ after 200 orbits. There is mass increase in the inner disc for some schemes in the beginning of the simulation. This suggests that there is gas flow through the gap from the outer to the inner disc since in the Neptune simulations the gap is shallower and the planet generates weaker shocks. The artificial viscosity may cause the flow from the outer to the inner disc. Another possible explanation is that the damping wave condition near the inner boundary adds artificially angular momentum to the disc.

We plot the profiles of the derivative of the torque with re-
spect to the radius in Figure 24. The agreement between the codes is good compared with the inviscid Jupiter case, especially for the cylindrical grid hydrodynamical codes. The vortices do not perturb the planet strongly and the specific torque radial profiles are stationary. The outer disc generates again a negative torque acting on the planet and the inner disc gives a positive torque. At several Hill radii away from the planet location the torques become negligible.

In Figure 25, the time average of the gravitational torques acting on the planet and their associated PDSs are plotted. The total torque after 200 periods agree within a factor 2 (see Table 7). upwind results show good agreement while the shock-capturing results have larger oscillations. The oscillations observed in the raw data and PDSs may be produced by short-lived vortices appearing during the first orbits which are not visible at later time in the density snapshots.

Table 7. Averaged torques at the end of the simulations in units where $a = 1$, $P = 2\pi$ and $M^* = 1 - \mu$ for the Neptune inviscid simulations.

| Code            | Torque                      |
|-----------------|-----------------------------|
| NIRVANA-GDA     | $-5.601425 \times 10^{-5}$  |
| NIRVANA-PC      | $-5.802065 \times 10^{-5}$  |
| RH2D            | $-6.329492 \times 10^{-5}$  |
| GLOBAL          | $-5.645140 \times 10^{-5}$  |
| GENESIS         | $-5.078578 \times 10^{-5}$  |
| TRAMP-VANLEER   | $-8.154881 \times 10^{-5}$  |
| AMRA            | $-6.523340 \times 10^{-5}$  |
| FLASH-AG        | $1.055228 \times 10^{-5}$   |
| FLASH-AP        | $-1.234136 \times 10^{-4}$  |
| RODEO           | $-2.834292 \times 10^{-5}$  |
| JUPITER         | $-5.742200 \times 10^{-5}$  |
| TRAMP-PPM       | $-1.055228 \times 10^{-5}$  |

Figure 23. Disc mass loss rate evolution for the inviscid Neptune simulations.

Figure 24. Specific torque profiles after 100 orbits for the inviscid Neptune simulations.

Figure 28. The upper panel shows the surface density profiles averaged azimuthally over $2\pi$ after 100 orbits for the viscous Neptune runs. The residuals in the lower panel are defined as in Figure 4.

5.4 Viscous Neptune

In Figure 26, the comparative surface density contours after 100 orbits for the viscous Neptune case are plotted. The theoretical estimation of the spiral shocks positions by Ogilvie and Lubow (2002) is shown by the dashed line. The flow is smoother than in the inviscid Neptune simulations. The density lumps moving along the edge of the gap have disappeared and the planetary wakes are stable. The filamentary structures in the shock-capturing simulations have a reduced amplitude compared with the inviscid case.

The vortensity maps are shown in Figure 27. The density blobs lying next to the gap’s edge are not observed in the viscous simulations in logarithmic scale. Several codes show wave reflection at the outer boundary despite the wave damping condition.
Figure 25. Time averaged torques and their PDSs for the inviscid Neptune simulations. The plots are shown in the same order as in Figure 9 and exclude the material inside the Roche lobe.

The smoothed density profiles are shown in Figure 28 for the viscous Neptune calculations. The gap profile is again in good agreement for the polar grid hydrodynamics codes. The gap is shallower for FLASH-AG than for the other Eulerian codes. FLASH-AP has a wider and deeper gap with a flat shape. PARASPH has a very deep gap and SPHTREE has a strong asymmetry with the deeper depression outside the planet position. The residuals of the averaged profiles divided by the disc mass are shown in the bottom panel in Figure 23.

The surface density opposite to the planet after 100 orbits is shown in Figure 29. FLASH-AG has a shallow gap whereas FLASH-AP has a deeper and broader gap. The waves observed in the inner and outer disc agree within a few percent for the Eulerian
Figure 26. Surface density maps after 100 orbits for the viscous Neptune simulations. The dashed line is the estimated theoretical position of the spiral arms. The density range is $-0.4 < \log(\Sigma/\Sigma_0) < 0.3$. 
Figure 27. Vortensity contours after 100 orbits for the viscous Neptune simulations. The vortensity range is $-0.1 < \log(\zeta) < 1$. 

A comparative study of disc-planet interaction
schemes. PARASPH has a very open gap and SPHTREE has a noisy profile with a deep cavity outside the planet’s radius.

The surface density azimuthal slices after 100 orbits are plotted in Figure 30. A density spike appears again at the planet location in the grid codes. The grid codes show a density decrease of approximately 10-20% of the initial density in the center of the gap, while PARASPH has a decrease of about 60% as in the inviscid Neptune case.

The disc mass loss rate is shown in Figure 31. All the models apart from FLASH-AP show total mass loss after 200 periods with final values consistent within a factor of about 3. RODEO has a sharp jump in mass loss rate at about 155 periods. FLASH-AP results have a considerable mass transfer from the region close to the star due to the gravitational softening.

The $\frac{dT}{dr}$ profiles after 100 orbits are shown in Figure 32. The profiles show a good agreement between the grid-based codes.

We plot the time averaged torques acting on the planet on the left hand side of Figure 33. The torque contribution from the inner disc is positive, while the outer disc contribution is negative. The outer disc dominates the total torque and would cause an inwards orbital shift for a free moving planet. In Table 8, we show the averaged torques at 200 orbital periods. The torques PDSs are shown on the right hand side of Figure 33. The spectrum is rather flat for all codes which agrees with the absence of vortices or eccentricity in the disc.

5.5 High resolution simulations

We studied the convergence of the results running the test problem at 2 and 4 times the original linear resolution with some of the codes. NIRVANA-PC and NIRVANA-GD Jupiter simulations were run at resolution $n_r \times n_\phi = (256, 768)$. Several tests at $n_r \times n_\phi = (512, 1536)$ were done with RH2D, NIRVANA-GD and FARGO codes for Jupiter and Neptune planet masses. PARASPH
A comparative study of disc-planet interaction

Figure 33. Time averaged torques and corresponding PDSs for the viscous Neptune case. The plots are shown in the same order as in Figure 9 and exclude the material inside the Roche lobe.

was run using 853,280 particles and 146,720 boundary particles for the Jupiter viscous case.

In the grid-based schemes, the flow is observed to be smoother and more stable in time than in the low resolution runs. Vortices are still visible in the Jupiter inviscid simulations in the NIRVANA-PC and FARGO simulations. The vortices are more extended than in the lower resolution calculations and interact with the primary and secondary shocks. There is more mass piling up inside the Roche lobe after 200 orbits in the higher resolution cases in agreement with the results of D’Angelo et al. (2005). Nevertheless, the averaged density profiles are very similar to the results presented in the previous sections. The gravitational torques are similar in the grid-based codes and in good agreement with the low resolution results.

The PARASPH results with \(\sim 850,000\) particles have stronger
shocks and the density profiles are in good agreement with the grid-based results. This suggests that SPH schemes need higher resolution to model accurately the corotation region and planetary wakes.

6 DISCUSSION

In this paper, we have studied a planet in a fixed orbit embedded in a disc using 17 different SPH and Eulerian methods. The codes used in the comparison have been thoroughly tested in problems with known analytical solutions. The goal of this project was to investigate the reliability of current astrophysical hydrodynamic codes in the disc-planet problem, and to provide a reference for future calculations. Performing this comparison also aided in the debugging of the codes.

The results show good agreement on the general picture, although there are some differences in the details. The density maps and averaged profiles are consistent for the grid-based methods. The variation in the disc mass is of the order of 10% after 100 orbital periods, but this does not seem to produce big differences in the surface density distributions. The different boundary conditions tested in FARGO do not affect the results since the goal in both boundary implementations was to avoid the reflection of waves. A preliminary study of convergence using finer grids shows that there is agreement at 2 and 4 times the original linear resolution.

Vortices are visible in the inviscid runs for both planet masses $\mu = 10^{-3}$ and $10^{-4}$ in the grid codes, which induce a strong perturbation to the tidal torque. The vortices in the upwind simulations have a larger amplitude and are more extended than in the shock-capturing results. The total torque acting on the planet excluding the material inside the Roche lobe agree in order of magnitude for Jupiter models. The torque results for Neptune have greater dispersion, possibly due to incomplete clearing of the gap, but agree nevertheless in the final value within a factor 2.

It has been observed that shock-capturing codes show a large amount of filamentary small-scale structure unseen in model results obtained with other codes. This is especially true for both Direct-Eulerian implementations, AMRA and FLASH. In addition, AMRA results show enhanced small-scale structure when compared to FLASH. Extensive comparison tests of the two implementations has shown that much of the observed differences is due to use of more selective dissipation algorithm in AMRA. (The so-called flattening algorithm in AMRA is based on Eqns. A.7-A.10 from Colella and Woodward [1984] while FLASH uses Eq. A.2). After adopting the simplified version of the flattening algorithm in AMRA, the results closely matched those obtained with the FLASH code. Adding a small amount of artificial viscosity with coefficient of 0.1, as recommended by Colella and Woodward [1984], resulted in a further reduction of filamentary structures and substantial reduction of the strength of vortices located at the gap edges.

The upwind codes have a smooth disc structure and do not show filaments in the inviscid simulations. This may be due to the fact that shock-capturing codes have small intrinsic viscosity in our problem in cylindrical coordinates, where flow is dominated by advection in only one dimension. Bryden et al. [1999] have shown that van Leer based codes in polar coordinates may have low intrinsic viscosity comparable with shock-capturing methods. It has been checked that none of the above changes are needed in AMRA if the grid resolution is increased twice. In this case the solution is much smoother and the vortices at the gap edges decay faster.

The Cartesian implementations produce results that are comparable to the other codes but there are differences in the gap structure due to the open inner boundary. The depleted density distribution in the inner disc in FLASH-AP produces different torques but the torque contribution from the outer disc is consistent with the cylindrical grid codes.

SPH codes predict the shape of the gap correctly but do not resolve well low density regions where the number of particles is small. In addition the spiral wakes are weaker, possibly due to SPH being more dissipative. The Balsara switch included in the SPH-TREE code is used to reduce the shear component of artificial viscosity but it may also smooth out the shocks. An advantage of SPH codes is that the geometry of the problem is well adapted to a Lagrangian scheme and the algorithm implementation is simpler than for Eulerian codes. The planet can be treated as a regular particle which accretes material. Furthermore, it is possible to follow the trajectory of individual fluid elements and study the accretion flows. SPH codes are computationally more expensive than Eulerian codes at the same resolution. Our high resolution tests indicate that higher resolution is needed in the SPH simulations to obtain results comparable to the Eulerian grid codes.

Possible future work includes the comparison of high resolution runs using multi-level meshes to investigate the gas flow close to the planet, the study of the orbital shift of a free-moving planet and 3-dimensional simulations (see e.g. Kley et al. [2001], D’Angelo et al. 2003). The convergence of the results with resolution needs to be studied in detail.

In closing we would like to reiterate that computational work might be regarded as an experiment, rather than a simulation. We have shown that different codes can give slightly different results for the same physical problem. Reproducibility of experimental results is fundamental to the scientific process, and this standard must be applied to those performed with computers. Before a computational result can be regarded as reliable, it must be confirmed by an independent test with a different code.

REFERENCES

Balsara, D.: 1995, J. Comput. Phys. 121, 357
Balsara, D. S.: 1994, ApJ 420, 197
Bate, M. R., Bonnell, I. A., and Price, N. M.: 1995, MNRAS 277, 362
Benz, W.: 1990, in Numerical Modelling of Nonlinear Stellar Pulsations Problems and Prospects, p. 269
Blondin, J. M. and Lufkin, E. A.: 1993, ApJS 88, 589
Boss, A. P.: 1998, ApJ 503, 923

Table 8. Averaged torques in the window 175–200 periods in units where $a = 1$, $P = 2\pi$ and $M = 1 – \mu$ for the Neptune viscous simulations.

| Code        | Torque            |
|-------------|-------------------|
| IRVANA-GDA  | $-3.375560 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| IRVANA-PC   | $-2.467831 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| RH2D        | $-3.257739 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| GLOBAL      | $-3.742940 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| GENESIS     | $-2.700463 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| PENCIL      | $-7.303624 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| AMRA        | $-2.634983 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| FLASH-AG    | $-2.933768 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| FLASH-AP    | $-6.022857 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| RODEO       | $-2.697915 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| JUPITER     | $-3.809917 \times 10^{-5}$ |
A comparative study of disc-planet interaction

Boss, A. P.: 2001, ApJ 563, 367
Brandenburg, A. and Dobler, W.: 2002, Comp. Phys. Comm. 147, 471
Bryden, G., Chen, X., Lin, D. N. C., Nelson, R. P., and Papaloizou, J. C. B.: 1999, ApJ 514, 344
Colella, P. and Woodward, P.: 1984, J. Comput. Phys. 54, 174
D’Angelo, G., Bate, M. R., and Lubow, S. H.: 2005, MNRAS 358, 316
D’Angelo, G., Kley, W., and Henning, T.: 2003, ApJ 586, 540
Delgado-Donate, E. J., Clarke, C. J., and Bate, M. R.: 2003, MN-
Colella, P. and Woodward, P.: 1984, J. Comput. Phys.
Bryden, G., Chen, X., Lin, D. N. C., Nelson, R. P., and Papaloizou, J. T., Tinney, C. G., and Jones, H. R. A.: 2005, Progress of Theoretical Physics Supplement 158
Marcy, G. W., Butler, R. P., Fischer, D., Vogt, S., Wright, J. T., Tinney, C. G., and Jones, H. R. A.: 2005, Progress of Theoretical Physics Supplement 158
Marcy, G. W., Butler, R. P., Fischer, D. A., and Vogt, S. S.: 2003, in ASP Conf. Ser. 294: Scientific Frontiers on Research in Extra-
solar Planets, pp 1-58381
Masset, F.: 2000a, A&AS 141, 165
Masset, F. S.: 2000b, in ASP Conf. Ser. 219: Disks, Planetesimals, and Planets, p. 75
Mayor, M. and Queloz, D.: 1995, Nature 378, 355
Mihalas, D. and Weibel Mihalas, B.: 1984, Foundations of radiation hydrodynamics. New York: Oxford University Press, 1984
Monaghan, J. J.: 1989, J. Chem. Phys. 82, 1
Monaghan, J. J.: 1992, AR& A 30, 543
Monaghan, J. J. and Gingold, R. A.: 1983, J. Chem. Phys. 52, 374
Monaghan, J. J. and Lattanzio, J. C.: 1985, A&A 149, 135
Nelson, A. F. and Benz, W.: 2003, ApJ 589, 556
Nelson, R. P., Papaloizou, J. C. B., Masset, F., and Kley, W.: 2000, MNRAS 318, 18
Ogilvie, G. I. and Lubow, S. H.: 2002, MNRAS 330, 950
Péquignot, D., Ferland, G., Netzer, H., Kallman, T., Ballantyne, D. R., Dumont, A.-M., Ercolano, B., Harrington, P., Kraemer, S., Morisset, C., Nayakshin, S., Rubin, R. H., and Sutherland, R., 2001, in ASP Conf. Ser. 247: Spectroscopic Challenges of Photoionized Plasmas, p. 533
Paardekooper, S.-J. and Mellema, G.: 2006, A&A 450, 1203
Papaloizou, J. J. and Lin, D. N. C.: 1984, ApJ 285, 818
Pembur, R. B., Bell, J. B., Colella, W. Y., Crutchfield, W. Y., and Ruder, H.: 1994, ApJ 431, 754
Frenk, C. S., White, S. D. M., Bode, P., Bond, J. R., Bryan, G. L., Cen, R., Couchman, H. M. P., E rvard, A. E., Gnedin, N., Jenkins, A., Khokhlov, A. M., Klypin, A., Navarro, J. F., Norman, M. L., Ostriker, J. P., Owen, G. M., Pearce, F. R., Pen, U.-L., Steinmetz, M., Thomas, P. A., Vellumns, J. V., Wadsley, J. W., Warren, M. S., Xu, G., and Yepes, G.: 1999, ApJ 525, 554
Fryxell, B., Olson, K., Ricker, P., Timmes, F. X., Zingale, M., Lamb, D. Q., MacNeice, P., Rosner, R., Truran, J. W., and Tufo, H.: 2000, ApJS 131, 273
Fryxell, B. A., Müller, E., and Arnett, W. D.: 1989, Max-Planck-Institut für Astrophysik, Preprint 449, Garching
Gingold, R. A. and Monaghan, J. J.: 1977, MNRAS 181, 375
Goldinov, S. K.: 1959, Mat. Sh 47, 271
Goldreich, P. and Tremaine, S.: 1979, ApJ 233, 857
Goldreich, P. and Tremaine, S.: 1980, ApJ 241, 425
Hawley, J. and Stone, J.: 1995, Comp. Phys. Comm. 89, 127
Klahr, H. H., Henning, T., and Kley, W.: 1999, ApJ 514, 325
Kley, W.: 1989, A&A 208, 98
Kley, W.: 1998, A&A 338, L37
Kley, W.: 1999, MNRAS 303, 696
Kley, W., D’Angelo, G., and Henning, T.: 2001, ApJ 547, 457
Korycansky, D. G. and Papaloizou, J. C. B.: 1996, ApJS 105, 181
Landau, L. D. and Lifshitz, E. M.: 1959, Fluid mechanics, Course of theoretical physics, Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1959
Lanev, C. B.: 1998, Computational G asodynamics, Cambridge University Press
LeVeque, R. L.: 2002, Finite Volume Methods for Hyperbolic Problems, Cambridge University Press
Lin, D. N. C. and Papaloizou, J.: 1979, MNRAS 186, 799
Lin, D. N. C. and Papaloizou, J.: 1986a, ApJ 307, 395
Lin, D. N. C. and Papaloizou, J.: 1986b, ApJ 309, 846
Lodato, G. and Rice, W. K. M.: 2004, MNRAS 351, 630
Lubow, S. H., Seibert, M., and Artymowicz, P.: 1999, ApJ 526, 1001
Lucy, L. B.: 1977, AJ 82, 1013
Marcy, G. W. and Butler, R. P.: 1996, ApJ 464, L147
Marcy, G. W., Butler, R. P., Fischer, D., Vogt, S., Wright, J. T., Tinney, C. G., and Jones, H. R. A.: 2005, Progress of Theoretical Physics Supplement 158
Marcy, G. W., Butler, R. P., Fischer, D. A., and Vogt, S. S.: 2003, in ASP Conf. Ser. 294: Scientific Frontiers on Research in Extra-

APPENDIX A: ADVICE FOR OTHERS

Putting together this comparison has been something of a “learning experience” for all concerned. Although not strictly scientific, we would like to share our experiences with others who may be contemplating similar comparisons.

As with many things, advance planning is the most important. So far is possible, decide in advance which quantities should be monitored, and how often this should be done. What should be checked every timestep (or so), and what is only required at much less frequent intervals? Storage requirements are relevant to this: for example, writing out the total mass in the simulation is a lot...
cheaper (both in terms of space and time) than outputting the entire density field. Changing the output quantities at a later date will often involve re-running computations, which will delay matters.

Careful attention should also be paid to the format of the submitted files. Each code generally has its own output format. Those co-ordinating the comparison do not have time to pick through each of these - automated processing must be the goal. Make sure that the format is carefully specified (since if there are two mutually incompatible ways of doing something, it is certain that results with both ways will be submitted). As an aside, for grid based results, it is probably more sensible to write out the indices of each cell, rather than the co-ordinates themselves: integers are exact. Supply the tables to convert indices to co-ordinates separately.

Pay similar attention to the problem specification itself. Some flexibility will inevitably be needed, but try to keep this to a minimum. Again, the authors’ experience is that anything left vague will be done in different ways by different groups.

Communication is also hugely important. In addition to setting up a mailing list, the authors were able to hold several short meetings, using funds provided by the EU. These were crucial to moving the project forward. Better still would have been to have held a longer workshop (perhaps a week) where everyone could gather, discuss and run their codes together.

We hope that future groups will find our experiences useful in planning their own code comparisons.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This project is supported by the European Research Training Network “The Origin of Planetary Systems” (contract number HPRN-CT-2002-00308). The participants had the opportunity to discuss the results of the comparison at a workshop in Stockholm in May 2004 funded by the Network.

MdVB is supported by a NOT/IAC scholarship. RGE, PC (Munich) and GD acknowledge financial support provided through the European Community’s Human Potential Programme under contract HPRN-CT-2002-00308, PLANETS. PC (QMUL) is supported by a PPARC PhD studentship. GDA was supported by the Leverhulme Trust through a UKAFF Fellowship. AG is supported through grant IP03D 02626 from the Polish Ministry of Science. This work is supported in part by the U.S. Department of Energy under Grant No. B523820 to the Center for Astrophysical Thermonuclear Flashes at the University of Chicago. FLASH-AG calculations were performed at the Interdisciplinary Centre for Mathematical and Computational Modeling in Warsaw, Poland.

This research has made use of NASA’s Astrophysics Data System Bibliographic Services.

This paper has been typeset from a \TeX/\LaTeX file prepared by the author.