New constitutive equations for the teardrop and parabolic lens yield curves in viscous-plastic sea ice models

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Abstract

Most viscous-plastic sea ice models use the elliptical yield curve. This yield curve has the fundamental flaw that it excludes acute angles between deformation features at high resolution. Conceptually, the teardrop and parabolic lens yield curves offer an attractive alternative. These yield curves feature a non-symmetrical shape, a Coulombic behavior for the low-medium compressive stress, and a continuous transition to the ridging-dominant mode. We show that the current formulation of the teardrop and parabolic lens viscous-plastic yield curves with normal flow rules results in negative or zero bulk and shear viscosities and consequently poor numerical convergence and representation of stress states on or within the yield curve. These issues are mainly linked to the assumption that the constitutive equation applicable for the elliptical yield curve also applies to non-symmetrical yield curves and yield curves with tensile strength. We present a new constitutive relation for the teardrop and parabolic lens yield curves that solves the numerical convergence issues naturally. Results from simple uni-axial loading experiments show that we can reduce the residual norm of the numerical solver with a smaller number of total solver iterations, resulting in significant improvements in numerical efficiency and representation of the stress and deformation field.

New constitutive equations for the teardrop and parabolic lens yield curves in viscous-plastic sea ice models

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- **Key Points:**

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9	• The teardrop and parabolic lens yield curves are alternatives to solve the short-
10	comings of the elliptical yield curve to model sea ice.
11	• Using the constitutive equation of the elliptical yield curve does not apply to yield
12	curves with other shapes, such as the teardrop.
13	• We propose new constitutive equations that solves this problem and show improved
14	numerical convergence and stress fields.

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15 Abstract

Most viscous-plastic sea ice models use the elliptical yield curve. This yield curve has 16 the fundamental flaw that it excludes acute angles between deformation feature at high 17 resolution. Conceptually, the teardrop and parabolic lens yield curves offer an attrac-18 tive alternative. These yield curves feature a non-symmetrical shape, a Coulombic be-19 havior for the low-medium compressive stress, and a continuous transition to the ridging-20 dominant mode. We show that the current formulation of the teardrop and parabolic 21 lens viscous-plastic yield curves with normal flow rules results in negative or zero bulk 22 and shear viscosities and consequently poor numerical convergence and representation 23 of stress states on or within the yield curve. These issues are mainly linked to the as-24 sumption that the constitutive equation applicable for the elliptical yield curve also ap-25 plies to non-symmetrical yield curves and yield curves with tensile strength. We present 26 a new constitutive relation for the teardrop and parabolic lens yield curves that solves 27 the numerical convergence issues naturally. Results from simple uni-axial loading exper-28 iments show that we can reduce the residual norm of the numerical solver with a smaller 29 number of total solver iterations, resulting in significant improvements in numerical ef-30 ficiency and representation of the stress and deformation field. 31

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Plain Language Summary

Most sea ice models simulate sea ice as a viscous-plastic material. The stress parametriza-33 tion in viscous-plastic models commonly uses an elliptical yield curve that delimits be-34 tween the fast plastic deformations and the slow viscous creep. To overcome some short-35 comings of the elliptical yield curve, other shapes of yield curves can be used, like the 36 teardrop and parabolic lens yield curves. In this work, we analyze the current formula-37 tion of these two yield curves and show that three problems in these formulations lead 38 to bad numerical convergences and nonphysical behaviors. We propose solutions to each 39 of these problems and we use a simple experiment to show that our proposed formula-40 tion leads to significant improvements in the computing time and the representation of 41 stresses and deformation. 42

43 **1 Introduction**

Sea ice dynamical models are an integral part of the CMIP6 models (Notz & Community, 2020). Following the increase of computation power, the models' resolution was

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increased and can now represent Linear Kinematic Features or LKFs in the sea ice de-46 formation (N. Hutter et al., 2019; Hutchings et al., 2005). LKFs are narrow bands where 47 most of the sea ice deformation takes place (Kwok, 2001). Many of the LKFs are leads 48 with open water or thin ice where the bulk of the heat and matter transfer between at-49 mosphere and ocean takes place (Maykut, 1978), so that it important to represent LKFs 50 adequately in sea ice models. The capacity of a sea ice dynamical model to represent LKFs 51 explicitly depends mainly to its resolution and its rheological model (Bouchat et al., 2021; 52 N. C. Hutter et al., 2021). 53

Sea ice deformation is simulated using a rheological model that parameterizes sea 54 ice physical properties and relates stresses and strain rates. Sea ice rheological models 55 can use different material properties to represent sea ice: Elastic-Plastic (EP, Coon et 56 al., 1974), Viscous-Plastic (VP, Hibler, 1977), Elastic-Anisotropic-Plastic (EAP, Tsama-57 dos et al., 2013), or Maxwell-Elasto-Brittle (MEB, Dansereau et al., 2016). Still today, 58 sea ice models most commonly use the VP model because in spite of critique they per-59 form well compared to observations and other rheologies, especially at high resolution 60 (N. C. Hutter et al., 2021). 61

The VP rheological model requires the definition of a yield curve and a flow rule. 62 First, the yield curve sets the stress limit at which sea ice deforms plastically. Several 63 yield curve shapes have been used: elliptical (Hibler, 1979), triangular or Mohr-Coulomb 64 (Ip et al., 1991; Hibler & Schulson, 2000), and teardrop or parabolic lens (Zhang & Rothrock, 65 2005). Second, the flow rule sets the relative amount of shear and divergence or conver-66 gence of the ice for a given stress state. The flow rule can be normal (Hibler, 1979; Zhang 67 & Rothrock, 2005) or non-normal (Ip et al., 1991; Ringeisen et al., 2021) to the yield curve. 68 In this terminology, a rheology is defined by a specific yield curve shape and a flow rule. 69

Rothrock (1975) proposed two yield curves shapes: the teardrop and parabolic lens 70 yield curves. These two yield curves satisfy Drucker's convexity postulate for stability 71 (Palmer et al., 1967; Drucker, 1950) and represent both divergence and convergence, in 72 contrast to a Mohr–Coulomb yield curve with a normal flow rule. These two yield curve 73 shapes have not been used until Zhang and Rothrock (2005) proposed VP constitutive 74 equations of these yield curves with normal flow rules. These sea ice VP rheologies are 75 implemented in the PIOMAS model (Zhang, 2020) but, to our knowledge, have not been 76 used much elsewhere. 77

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Sea ice models require expensive solvers because of the non-linear equations of the 78 rheology (Lemieux & Tremblay, 2009; Losch & Danilov, 2012; Koldunov et al., 2019). 79 For useful climate modeling, sea ice models need to be stable and efficient, while giving 80 an accurate prediction of sea ice motion. The stability of the sea ice model can be ex-81 pressed by system energy considerations (Dukowicz, 1997; Schulkes, 1996; Pritchard, 2005). 82 For example, a negative bulk viscosity would make the rheology act as a spurious en-83 ergy source that leads to model instabilities. Instabilities lead to poor numerical con-84 vergence and inefficiency as the numerical convergence is more difficult to obtain. 85

In this paper, we document three issues in the formulation of the Teardrop (TD) 86 and Parabolic Lens (PL) yield curves with normal flow rules, as they are described in 87 Zhang and Rothrock (2005). First and second, regions of the yield curve where the nonlinear viscosity coefficients are negative or zero and become sources of energy instead of 89 sinks, and third, an inconsistency in the capping of the viscosities for the viscous regime 90 prevents the stresses from remaining on or within the yield curve. We then propose so-91 lutions to these issues that ensure numerical convergence for high-resolution sea ice mod-92 els. We test these solutions in an idealized experiment and show that they lead to im-93 proved numerical convergence and efficiency. 94

The paper is structured as follows: Section 2 reviews the original TD and PL viscousplastic rheologies (Zhang & Rothrock, 2005). Section 3 discusses the problems and solutions in detail. Section 4 describes an idealized experiment used to compare the new and original rheology. Section 5 compares the numerical convergence of the original and new formulations. Conclusions follow in Section 6.

¹⁰⁰ 2 Sea ice model

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2.1 The sea ice viscous-plastic rheological model

Following general practice, we simulate sea ice as a (vertically integrated) 2D viscousplastic material. The ice velocities are calculated from the sea ice momentum equations:

$$\rho h \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} = -\rho h f \vec{k} \times \vec{u} + \vec{\tau}_a + \vec{\tau}_o - \rho h \nabla \Phi_s + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}, \qquad (1)$$

where ρ is the ice density, h is the mean sea ice thickness, \vec{u} is the ice drift velocity field, f is the Coriolis parameter, \vec{k} is the vertical unit vector, $\vec{\tau}_a$ is the surface air stress, $\vec{\tau}_o$ is the ocean drag, $\nabla \Phi_s$ is the acceleration due to the gradient of geopotential (i.e., sea

surface) height, and σ is the vertically integrated internal ice stress tensor defined by

the sea ice VP constitutive equations.

We use the constitutive equation for the elliptical yield curve (Hibler, 1979, 1977):

$$\sigma_{ij} = 2\eta \dot{\epsilon}_{ij} + (\zeta - \eta) \dot{\epsilon}_{kk} \delta_{ij} - \frac{P}{2} \delta_{ij}, \qquad (2)$$

where ζ and η are the bulk and shear viscosities, and $\dot{\epsilon}_{ij}$ are the strain rates defined as $\dot{\epsilon}_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right)$. Different rheologies have different non-linear relationships between the viscosities and the strain rates.

The local ice strength P is defined as a function of the mean ice thickness h and concentration A, as

$$P = P^* h \, e^{-C^*(1-A)},\tag{3}$$

where P^* is the compressive strength of 1 m thick ice and C^* is a model parameter defining the ice strength dependence on ice concentration.

Equation (2) can also be written in stress invariant form as

$$\sigma_{\rm I} = 2\zeta \dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I} - \frac{P}{2},\tag{4}$$

$$\sigma_{\rm II} = 2\eta \dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}, \tag{5}$$

where the stress invariants are

$$\sigma_{\rm I} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sigma_{11} + \sigma_{22} \right) \text{ and } \sigma_{\rm II} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(\sigma_{11} - \sigma_{22})^2 + 4\sigma_{12}^2},$$
 (6)

and the strain rates invariants are

$$\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\dot{\epsilon}_{11} + \dot{\epsilon}_{22} \right) \text{ and } \dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(\dot{\epsilon}_{11} - \dot{\epsilon}_{22})^2 + 4\dot{\epsilon}_{12}^2}.$$
 (7)

With the factor $\frac{1}{2}$ for $\dot{\epsilon}_{I}$ and $\dot{\epsilon}_{II}$, we follow the definition of the strain rate invariants given in Zhang and Rothrock (2005).

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2.2 Original formulations

Following Zhang and Rothrock (2005), the equation of the teardrop (TD) and the parabolic lens (PL) yield curves can be written as

$$\frac{\sigma_{\rm II}}{P} = -\left(\frac{\sigma_{\rm I}}{P} - k_t\right) \left(1 + \frac{\sigma_{\rm I}}{P}\right)^q,\tag{8}$$

where $q = \frac{1}{2}$ for the TD and q = 1 for the PL yield curve. P is the local isotropic com-

pressive strength and k_t (= T/P) is the tensile factor such that T is the local isotropic



Figure 1. Representation of the teardrop and parabolic yield curves with a normal flow rule in invariant stress space (σ_{I}, σ_{II}) with $k_t = 0.1$. Regions of the yield curve where bulk viscosities are negative are shown as a thick red (see Sec. 3.1). The angles at the tips show the range of flow rule grouped at this point.

¹²⁰ ice tensile strength (König Beatty & Holland, 2010). Equation (8) can be rewritten as

$$F = y + (x - k_t)(1 + x)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0$$
, for the TD, (9)

$$F = y + (x - k_t)(1 + x) = 0$$
, for the PL, (10)

where

$$x = \frac{\sigma_{\rm I}}{P} , \ y = \frac{\sigma_{\rm II}}{P}. \tag{11}$$

Equations (9) or (10), together with the associated flow rule conditions,

$$\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I} = \lambda \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial \sigma_{\rm I}} = \frac{\lambda}{P} \frac{\partial F}{\partial x}, \ \dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II} = \lambda \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \sigma_{\rm II}} = \frac{\lambda}{P} \frac{\partial F}{\partial x}, \tag{12}$$

constitute systems of three equations and three unknowns $(\sigma_{\rm I}, \sigma_{\rm II}, \lambda)$ or (u, y, λ) . The solution of these systems can be written as

$$x_{\rm TD} = \frac{\sigma_{\rm I}}{P} = \frac{-[6 - 3k_t - 2l^2] + 2l\sqrt{l^2 + 3(1 + k_t)}}{9},$$
(13)

$$y_{\rm TD} = \frac{\sigma_{\rm II}}{P} = -(x_{\rm TD} - k_t)(1 + x_{\rm TD})^{\frac{1}{2}}, \qquad \qquad \text{for the TD}, \qquad (14)$$

$$\lambda = P\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II},\tag{15}$$

and

$$x_{\rm PL} = \frac{\sigma_{\rm I}}{P} = \frac{1}{2}(l - 1 + k_t), \tag{16}$$

$$y_{\rm PL} = \frac{\sigma_{\rm II}}{P} = -(x_{\rm PL} - k_t)(1 + x_{\rm PL}), \quad \text{for the PL}, \quad (17)$$

$$\lambda = P\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}, \tag{18}$$

where $l = \frac{\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I}}{\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}}$. Note that a second root for $x_{\rm TD}$ is discarded because it leads to flow rules pointing inward of the yield curve (not shown). The bulk and shear viscosities ζ and η

can be calculated from the above constitutive equations (Eqs. 4-5) as,

$$\zeta_{\rm TD} = \frac{\sigma_{\rm I} + P/2}{2\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I}} = \frac{x_{\rm TD} + 1/2}{2\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I}}P,\tag{19}$$

$$\eta_{\rm TD} = \frac{\sigma_{\rm II}}{2\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}} = \frac{y}{2\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}}P = \frac{-(x_{\rm TD} - k_t)(1 + x_{\rm TD})^{\frac{1}{2}}}{2\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}}P,$$
(20)

and

$$\zeta_{\rm PL} = \frac{\sigma_{\rm I} + P/2}{2\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I}} = \frac{x_{\rm PL} + 1/2}{2\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I}}P, \qquad (21)$$

$$\eta_{\rm PL} = \frac{\sigma_{\rm II}}{2\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}} = \frac{y}{2\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}}P = \frac{-(x_{\rm PL} - k_t)(1 + x_{\rm PL})}{2\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}}P, \qquad (22)$$

In the limit where deformations tend to zero, the viscous coefficients η and ζ become infinite. To avoid this, ζ is capped with a maximum value, ζ_{max} . In contrast to the elliptical yield curve in the standard VP model, η is not a function of ζ and is also capped at a maximum value η_{max} (= ζ_{max} , J. Zhang, personal communication).

¹²⁵ In Zhang and Rothrock (2005), the following conditions are used for the narrow ¹²⁶ tip of the TD and PL yield curves:

$$\sigma_{\rm I} = k_t P \text{ for } l > 1, \text{ for the TD and PL},$$
 (23)

$$\sigma_{\rm I} = -P \text{ for } l < -1, \text{ for the PL.}$$
(24)

The number l is the link to the orientation of the flow rule, as it is the ratio of divergence 127 and shear. The reason why stress states with the flow rule oriented such as $|l| \ge 1$ are 128 not allowed is unclear. In addition, the conditions (23, 24) are not required for the math-129 ematical derivation of Eqs. (13) and (16). In fact, they lead to a discontinuity of the yield 130 curve, where no stress condition is defined, and shear viscosities that are equal to zero. 131 This has consequences for the numerical convergence of the momentum equations (See 132 Sect. 3.2). Note that for stress states with |l| > 1 no LKFs form in the sea ice VP model 133 (see Appendix B, Ringeisen et al., 2019). On the one hand, this may have been the rea-134 son that Zhang and Rothrock (2005) introduced the conditions (23, 24). On the other 135 hand, the elliptical yield curve, which serves as our reference for VP sea ice models, al-136 lows stress states with |l| > 1. 137

3 Problems and solutions

The formulation (13), (19), (20) — and (16), (21), (22) — of the constitutive equations, as defined in Zhang and Rothrock (2005), leads to three problems.

3.1 Negative bulk viscosity 141

In Eq. (19) and Eq. (21), the bulk viscosity ζ is negative when the numerator and 142 denominator have different signs, i.e., for: 143

$$-\frac{(2-k_t)P}{3} < \sigma_{\rm I} < -\frac{P}{2}, \text{ for the TD}, \qquad (25)$$

$$-\frac{P}{2} < \sigma_{\rm I} < -\frac{(1-k_t)P}{2}$$
, for the PL. (26)

These regions are marked in red on Fig. 1. In Zhang and Rothrock (2005), the negative 144 ζ are capped at zero ($\zeta_{\min} = 0$, J. Zhang, personal communication). This leads to stress 145 states outside of the yield curve near its apex (see region [1] on Figure 2a). 146

Negative bulk viscosities appear because the constitutive relation Eq. (2) (or Eqs. 147 4–5) is derived for a yield curve that is symmetric around $\sigma_{\rm I} = \frac{P}{2}$ with zero tensile strength 148 $(k_t = 0)$ but does not apply to the non-symmetrical tear drop or symmetrical parabolic 149 lens yield curves with normal flow rules but non-zero tensile strength. Rewriting Eqs. 150 (13) and (16) as a linear function of the divergence $\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I}$ and a strain-rate independent part 151 (the pressure term), we obtain, 152

$$\sigma_{\rm I} = 2 \underbrace{\frac{P}{9\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}} \left(\frac{\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I}}{\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I}}{\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}}\right)^2 + 3(1+k_t)}\right)}_{\zeta} \dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I} - \frac{2-k_t}{3}P \text{ for the TD}, \qquad (27)$$

$$\sigma_{\rm I} = 2 \underbrace{\frac{P}{4\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}}}_{\zeta_{\rm PL}} \dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I} - \frac{1 - k_t}{2} P \text{ for the PL.}$$
(28)

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By comparing this formulation to Eq (4), new definitions for ζ_{TD} and ζ_{PL} emerge:

$$\zeta_{\text{TD}} = \frac{P}{9\dot{\epsilon}_{\text{II}}} \left(\frac{\dot{\epsilon}_{\text{I}}}{\dot{\epsilon}_{\text{II}}} + \sqrt{\left(\frac{\dot{\epsilon}_{\text{I}}}{\dot{\epsilon}_{\text{II}}}\right)^2 + 3(1+k_t)} \right)$$
(29)

$$\zeta_{\rm PL} = \frac{P}{4\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}}.$$
(30)

and the pressure term in its original form $\left(\frac{P}{2}\right)$ becomes $\left(\frac{2-k_t}{3}P\right)$ and $\left(\frac{1-k_t}{2}P\right)$. These 154 new formulations for ζ_{TD} , ζ_{PL} , and σ_{I} solve the problem of negative ζ without the need 155 of capping at zero, compared to Eqs. (19) and (21). In this formulation, we let the con-156 stitutive equations for σ_{I} and the definition of ζ_{TD} and ζ_{PL} emerge naturally from the 157 system of equations defined by the yield curve and the normal flow rule, without the need 158 to use the constitutive equation of the elliptical yield curve without tensile strength Eq (4). 159 Note that, for the PL, the pressure term is the same as for the elliptical yield curve with 160 tensile strength (König Beatty & Holland, 2010). The σ_{II} constitutive equation and the 161

shear viscosity η is still computed with Eqs. (5), (20) for the TD, and Eqs. (5), (22) for 162 the PL. 163

3.2 Zero shear viscosity 164

The conditions (23 and 24) for $l = \frac{\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm I}}{\dot{\epsilon}_{\rm II}}$ are not necessary for the derivation of the 165 constitutive equations. A consequence of these conditions is a discontinuity on the yield 166 curve with undefined stress, a void (region [2] on Fig. 2a). We can replace these condi-167 tions by new ones that force the stress states to stay on the pointy tips of the yield curves 168 and avoid $\sigma_{\rm II} < 0$: 169

$$\sigma_{\rm I} = \min(\sigma_{\rm I}, T), \text{ for the TD and PL}$$
 (31)

$$\sigma_{\rm I} = \max(\sigma_{\rm I}, -P), \text{ for the PL.}$$
 (32)

However, when σ_{I} is capped like this, the shear viscosity η is identically zero, with $\sigma_{I} =$ 170 -P and $\sigma_{\rm I} = k_t P = T$ (Eqs. 20 and 22), and consequently $\sigma_{\rm II} = 0$. A zero shear vis-171 cosity η , while not an energy source as for the negative bulk viscosity, still means less 172 dissipation and may lead to numerical instabilities. Note that even small shear viscosi-173 ties are sufficient to stabilize the model during large deformations. 174

The following regularizing conditions on x ensure that the TD and PL yield curves 175 are continuous and that $\eta > 0$: 176

$$\sigma_{\rm I} = \min(\sigma_{\rm I}, \alpha T)$$
 for the TD and PL (33)

$$\sigma_{\rm I} = \max(\sigma_{\rm I}, -P + \alpha T) \text{ for the PL}, \qquad (34)$$

where $\alpha (\leq 1, \text{ e.g.}, \alpha = 0.95)$ ensures that η is never equal to zero; i.e., $\sigma_{\text{I}} \neq T$ or -P. 177

However, these new conditions truncate the pointy tips of the TD and PL, making them 178 square. With $\alpha \simeq 1$, this truncation is barely noticeable and but it improves the nu-179 merical convergence significantly.

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3.3 Mixed modes of viscous and plastic deformation

When using the teardrop and parabolic lens yield curve with a normal flow rule, 182 viscous creep and plastic deformation are allowed to occur independently from one an-183 other. For instance, plastic shear deformation is allowed while there is creep in conver-184 gence. Practically, this means that viscosities ζ and η are capped to ζ_{max} and η_{max} in-185 dependently, in contrast to the elliptical yield curve where η is function of ζ and both 186

are capped simultaneously. While this behavior is not physically inconsistent, it leads

to stresses outside of the yield curve, and stress states that are inside the yield curve that

¹⁸⁹ are plastic in one mode or the other. This makes numerical convergence more difficult

¹⁹⁰ for a general yield curve.

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To overcome this issue, we impose limits of ζ and η as

$$\zeta = \min\left(\zeta, \zeta_{\max}\min\left(1, \frac{\zeta}{\eta}\right)\right), \tag{35}$$

$$\eta = \min\left(\eta, \eta_{\max}\min\left(1, \frac{\eta}{\zeta}\right)\right), \tag{36}$$

where $\zeta_{\text{max}} = \eta_{\text{max}}$ are model parameters corresponding to ζ_{max} for the elliptical yield curve (Hibler, 1979). With this new relation, we ensure that all stress states inside the yield curve represent viscous deformations and that all stress on the yield curve represent plastic deformation. This new formulation has the disadvantage that it leads to different maximum viscosity depending on where the viscous stress state is relative to the yield curve.

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3.4 Comparison of the original and new formulation

Figure 2a shows plastic and stress states with the original and new formulation of the teardrop yield curve. To create these stress states, we create a random field of deformation rates $\dot{\epsilon}_{ij}$ which contains all combinations of shear, compression, and tension. We then apply the constitutive equation to compute the stresses σ_{ij} . Note that the stress states of both formulation are therefore computed with the same strain rates. The magnitude of the random strain rates is set to ensure both viscous and plastic states.

With the original simulation, the stress states for which $\zeta = 0$ are outside of the yield curve and gather along the $\sigma_{\rm I} = \frac{P}{2}$ line — region [1] — and there are no stress states on the yield curve close to the tip — region [2]. These two features do not appear in our modified formulation of the yield curve. The same comparison can be made with the parabolic lens yield curve (not shown).

Figure 2b shows the viscous capping process. Before viscous capping, the stresses are all on the yield curve (green). When ζ , or η , are capped independently the stresses move horizontally, or vertically, or towards the center if both viscosities are large enough to be capped (orange lines). When the viscosities are capped together following Eqs. (35–

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36), the stresses move towards the center of the teardrop (blue lines) $(\sigma_{\rm I} = -\frac{2-k_t}{3})$. Note that for Fig. 2b, we already use our solutions for η and ζ from Sect. 3.1 and 3.2.



Figure 2. (a) Stress states with the original (orange, lower half plane) and the proposed (blue, upper half plane) formulation of the teardrop yield curve for a random distribution of strain rates. The tensile factor $k_t = 0.1$ and the parameter $\alpha = 0.95$ (see Sect. 3.2). The red boxes [1] and [2] illustrate the issues described in Sect. 3.1 and 3.2. In box [1], the three colors indicate three behaviors: Stress states marked in red exceed the yield curve because of the viscous capping in ζ , these stresses are displaced horizontally toward the $\frac{P}{2}$ line. In green, some stress states are outside of the yield curve as the bulk viscosity is capped at zero. And in blue, stress states with $\zeta = 0$ move inside the ellipse along the $\frac{P}{2}$ line as η is capped for viscous deformation. (b) The lines show the trajectories of the stresses from before viscous capping to after viscous capping in the original (orange, lower half plane) and new formulation (blue, upper half plane) of the viscous capping process (Sect. 3.3). When bulk and shear viscosities are capped independently, the stresses move horizontally or vertically. By capping the viscosities together following Eqs. (35–36), we ensure that the stresses move towards the center of the TD yield curve $\left(\frac{2-k_t}{3}\right)$.

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4 Experimental setup

We use a uniaxial loading experiment in the MIT general circulation model (MITgcm, Campin et al., 2021). A piece of sea ice of 60 km by 250 km is embedded in an 100 km by 260 km domain with a constant grid spacing of 1 km (see Fig. 3). The sea ice is h =1 m thick and at A = 100% concentration. The rectangle of ice is in contact with the

- southern border and centered in the domain laterally. Hence, there is 20 km of open wa-
- ter on the East and West, and 10 km of open water in the North. We impose a uniform
- southward surface stress of $0.15 \,\mathrm{N\,m^{-2}}$. We use a no-slip boundary condition for the south-
- ern boundary (u = 0 and $v \ge 0$). The other boundaries use periodic boundary condi-
- tion. Since there is open water to the east, west and north side of the domain, the sim-
- ²²⁶ ulation results are robust with respect to the exact choice of boundary conditions on those
- boundaries. The timestep is 10 s and the experiment total length is $18\,000\,\mathrm{s} = 5\,\mathrm{h}$. In all simulations below, we use a tensile factor $k_t = 0.05$, unless specified otherwise.



Figure 3. Experimental setup of the idealized experiment. The orange arrows represent the uniform surface stress directed towards the closed boundary in red.

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We use a Picard solver with 10 outer-loop iterations (or pseudo-timesteps) (Zhang & Hibler, 1997), unless otherwise specified. For each of the solver outer-loop iterations, we use an LSR solver to solve the linearized problem until the solution reaches a 10^{-6} m s^{-1} accuracy or 500 iterations, which ever comes first. These conditions are realistic for panarctic sea ice simulations with 1-2 km resolution (see for example N. Hutter & Losch, 2020).

²³⁴ 5 Results and discussion

Figure 4a shows the L2-norm residual and the number of linear (LSR) iterations 235 for each non-linear loop with the TD yield curve in the idealized experiment described 236 in Sect. 4. The different colors show the residuals with and without the modifications 237 described in Sect. 3, and with the standard elliptical yield curve VP rheology for refer-238 ence. In the original formulation, the model does not converge; i.e. the residual norm 239 increases and stays high. With the new formulation, the model converges and reaches 240 a residual norm similar to the one of the elliptical yield curve with normal flow rule. The 241 modifications improve the convergence by more than one order of magnitude whilst de-242 creasing the total number of linear iterations (thus the total simulation time) by nearly 243 two orders of magnitude (Fig.4a). With the new formulation, the stress states are mostly



Figure 4. (a) L2-norm of the residual and number of linear LSR iterations for each non-linear iterations in each timestep with the teardrop yield curve without (orange) and with (blue) modifications, and with the elliptical yield curve for reference. The number in the legend indicates the total number of linear iterations used the simulation. We use here realistic solver settings for a 1 km resolution simulation: 10 outer-loops and 10^{-6} or 500 iterations for the LSR. (b) Same as (a), but only the 10 first timesteps when the number of non-linear iterations is increased to 15000 and the LSR condition for convergence is changed to 10^{-9} m s^{-1} or 15000 iterations.

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on or within the yield curve, and the linear structures along $\sigma_{\rm I} = -P/2$ and $\sigma_{\rm II} = 0$

disappear (Fig. 5).



Figure 5. Stress states corresponding to the last timestep of the simulations shown on Fig. 4a. For the new formulation, the stresses form a line following the $\sigma_{II} = -\sigma_I$ axis, as expected for uniaxial compression (Ringeisen et al., 2019).

Figure 4b shows the ten first time steps of the same experiments but with stricter 247 numerical convergence requirements (the solver's details are listed in the figure caption). 248 Even with a large number of non-linear iterations, the original formulation does not con-249 verge and keeps a residual around 10¹. The modified teardrop yield curve can reach a 250 residual of almost 10^{-4} and continues to decrease. However The rate of decrease is slower 251 than for the elliptical yield curve (Lemieux & Tremblay, 2009). The reasons for the slower 252 convergence with the TD are unclear but may be caused by varying viscosity inside the 253 vield curve. 254

For the elliptical yield curve with P = const, the stress states within the yield curve 255 always have the same viscosities $(\zeta = \zeta_{\max} \text{ and } \eta = \frac{\zeta_{\max}}{e^2})$. With the TD and PL yield 256 curves, the viscosities are defined independently and the transition from plastic to vis-257 cous deformations also has to be treated independently (see Sect. 3.3). For small stresses 258 (i.e., $\sigma_{\rm I}$ and $\sigma_{\rm II} \simeq 0$), this leads to unphysical gradients of shear viscosity. These gra-259 dients lead to spatial variations in stresses, thus small scale variations in the viscous de-260 formations. These variations in deformations make the numerical convergence more dif-261 ficult for the TD compared to the elliptical yield curve. This behavior leads to the cloud 262 of points close to $\sigma_{\rm I} = 0$ on Fig. 5. 263

With only two outer-loops (Zhang & Hibler, 1997; Zhang, 2020), the numerical convergence of both the original and new formulation is almost the same and the residual stays around $Res \simeq 10^1$, but the number of linear iterations of the new formulation is reduced (not shown).

²⁶⁸ 6 Conclusions

A new formulation of the teardrop (TD) and parabolic lens (PL) yield curves with 269 normal flow rule addresses three problems in its original formulation (Zhang & Rothrock, 270 2005). Two of these problems have a common cause: zero bulk or shear viscosity. The 271 zero bulk viscosity ζ is a consequence of the assumption that the constitutive equation 272 Eq. (2) presented in Hibler (1979) is valid for all yield curves, including asymmetrical 273 ones with respect to a average internal pressure $\frac{P}{2}$ and with non-zero tensile strength. 274 When letting the constitutive equation emerge naturally from the yield curve equation 275 and the normal flow rule conditions, a similar relation is found, except for the pressure 276 term with a new scaling factor different from $\frac{1}{2}$ that is a function of k_t . With this mod-277 ification negative bulk viscosities of in the original formulation no longer appear and ad-278 ditional limiting from below is unnecessary. The zero shear viscosity η is a consequence 279 the condition that keeps stress at the pointy tips (at $\sigma_{\rm I} = T$ or -P) of the yield curves. 280 These conditions of the original formulation are independent of k_t , leading to a discon-281 tinuity on the yield curve. The identically zero shear viscosity leads to instabilities. This 282 problem can be fixed by cutting the tip before it reaches the $\sigma_{\rm I}$ axis, ensuring a contin-283 uous yield curve and non-zero viscosities. 284

The third problem, of a lesser importance, is linked to the capping of the viscosities for the transition from plastic to viscous states. We reformulate the maximum limit on the bulk and shear viscosities to ensure that both are capped consistently and not independently. By doing so, we avoid stress states that represent half-viscous and halfplastic deformation. The direct consequence of theses changes is an improved numerical convergence and stress states that are on or within the yield curve. The most important was to avoid negative and zero viscosities.

These problems seem to have gone unnoticed because of the generally small number of solver outer-loops used in sea ice models. Sea ice models that use these yield curves generally use a very limited number of non-linear iterations (2 pseudo-timesteps, Zhang

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²⁹⁵ & Hibler, 1997). In this case, issues in the model's formulation remain hidden behind ²⁹⁶ the unconverged solution. By investigating the formulations of sea ice models in ideal-²⁹⁷ ized simulations where numerical convergence can be attempted, problems can be iden-²⁹⁸ tified, investigated, and solved.

The shape of the teardrop yield curve resembles the shape of the Mohr–Coulomb yield curve, and eliminates non-differentiable points when compared with yield curves in other models (Ip et al., 1991; Tremblay & Mysak, 1997; Hibler & Schulson, 2000; Dansereau et al., 2016; Rampal et al., 2019). This makes the teardrop yield curve an interesting alternative for general use in the community. The question whether the teardrop yield curve is an interesting alternative to solve the overestimation of intersection angles in sea ice models (N. C. Hutter et al., 2021, in review) is left for future work.

Open Research - Availability Statement

The rheological models described in this paper are implemented in the sea ice package of the MIT general circulation model (MITgcm) version 67z (Marshall et al., 1997; Losch et al., 2010; Campin et al., 2021). The model's code and simulations data used in Section 5 are available in the Zenodo archive https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6091690 (Ringeisen et al., 2022).

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