

Problèmes mathématiques et numériques posés par la modélisation de l'electrolyse de l'aluminium

Jean-Frédéric Gerbeau

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Jean-Frédéric GERBEAU

pour obtenir le titre de

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Sujet : Problèmes mathématiques et numériques posés par la modélisation de l'électrolyse de l'aluminium

soutenue le 24 Juin 1998 devant le jury composé de :

- M. Michel BERCOVIER,
- M. Jean-Paul BOUJOT,
- M. Pierre HOMSI,
- M. Bernard LARROUTUROU, Président,
- M. Claude LE BRIS, Directeur de thèse,
- M. Pierre-Louis LIONS,
- M. Olivier PIRONNEAU, Rapporteur,
- M. Frédéric POUPAUD, Rapporteur.

Pour Clothilde, Pour Lisa et Amandine, Pour mon père et ma mère.

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Introduction

Nous étudions dans cette thèse divers problèmes mathématiques et numériques qui se posent dans la modélisation de la fabrication industrielle de l'aluminium par électrolyse. La méthode de fabrication que nous considèrons ici est connue sous le nom de procédé Hall-Héroult. Cette technique date de la fin du XIXème siècle et est la seule actuellement utilisée à l'échelle industrielle. Sa modélisation conduit à considérer une grande variété de phénomènes physiques : écoulements magnétohydrodynamiques (MHD) et multiphasiques, phénomènes thermiques, réactions électrochimiques, aimantation. La première partie de ce travail consiste en une présentation de ces divers phénomènes dans le contexte industriel; nous nous consacrerons ensuite essentiellement à la MHD. L'objectif à long terme de la démarche engagée dans cette thèse est l'élaboration d'un modèle mathématique des cuves à électrolyse permettant de réaliser, par le biais de simulations numériques, des expérimentations dont la réalisation en grandeur nature est très coûteuse, voire impossible. Un but ultime serait le contrôle et l'optimisation des cuves à électrolyse.

Dans la deuxième partie, nous nous consacrons à l'étude théorique de quelques systèmes d'équations aux dérivées partielles provenant de la modélisation de certains aspects de l'électrolyse de l'aluminium. Nous prouvons l'existence de solutions faibles pour le système de la MHD incompressible avec densité, viscosité et conductivité électrique variables. Nous étudions également un système MHD simplifié consistant en un couplage entre les équations de Navier-Stokes transitoires et les équations de Maxwell stationnaires. Nous nous intéressons ensuite au comportement en temps long d'un système de deux fluides incompressibles non miscibles séparés par une interface libre.

L'objet principal de la troisième partie est d'étudier des méthodes numériques pour les équations de la MHD. La question que nous abordons dans un premier temps est de nature plus générale : nous traitons d'un problème de vitesses parasites pouvant survenir dans la simulation numérique d'un écoulement incompressible soumis à des forces volumiques extérieures. Nous illustrons ce phénomène à l'aide de plusieurs exemples et proposons une manière de l'atténuer. Nous nous intéressons ensuite à deux méthodes pour la résolution numérique d'un problème de magnétostatique. L'une de ces méthodes repose sur la notion de matrice d'influence. Puis, nous présentons quelques manières de traiter le couplage entre les équations de Maxwell et les équations de Navier-Stokes dans le système de la MHD. Nous étendons enfin aux équations de la MHD les techniques d'éléments finis stabilisés de type "streamline diffusion" bien connues pour les équations de Navier-Stokes.

On trouvera en annexe un travail sans rapport avec l'électrolyse de l'aluminium concernant des schémas numériques pour des écoulements compressibles à faible nombre de Mach.

Avant de détailler chacune de ces études, empressons-nous de dire que nous ne sommes pas encore en mesure de réaliser des simulations numériques "réalistes" des cuves à électrolyse. Nous ne proposons que *quelques* étapes vers leur modélisation et des travaux futurs devront compléter ce qui est engagé ici.

Signalons enfin que les références bibliographiques spécifiques à l'électrolyse de l'aluminium sont situées à la fin de la première partie (p. 47) et que celles correspondant aux autres chapitres, y compris l'appendice, sont regroupées à la fin de la thèse (p. 263).

1 Présentation de l'électrolyse de l'aluminium

L'aluminium est un métal fabriqué par électrolyse dans des cuves d'environ un mètre de haut, quatre de large et dix de long. Un courant électrique de l'ordre de 300 000 ampères arrive par des anodes de carbone situées au sommet de la cuve et traverse de haut en bas deux fluides : le bain électrolytique et l'aluminium fondu. La température des fluides est voisine de 970° C



FIG. 1: Schéma simplifié d'une cuve vue de face.

afin de les maintenir en phase liquide. Le bain contient essentiellement de

l'alumine (Al_2O_3) dissoute dans de la cryolithe (Na_3AlF_6) . L'aluminium est formé à l'interface bain/métal selon la réaction chimique :

$$2Al_2O_3 + 3C \longrightarrow 4Al + 3CO_2.$$

Le courant électrique est collecté par une cathode située dans le fond de la cuve et rejoint les anodes de la cuve suivante par des conducteurs extérieurs. Plusieurs dizaines de cuves à électrolyse sont ainsi montées en série.

Les courants électriques parcourant les cuves et les conducteurs extérieurs créent un champ magnétique intense (environ 0,01 T). Les fluides sont donc soumis à une force de Laplace (les anglophones disent plutôt "force de Lorentz") qui provoque des mouvements dans les fluides, à une vitesse de l'ordre de 0.2 m/s. La force de Laplace est également responsable de la déformation de l'interface entre le bain et l'aluminium. Si cette déformation est trop importante le rendement de la cuve diminue et le métal fondu peut même entrer en contact avec l'anode, provoquant alors un court-circuit. Pour éviter ce risque, on pourrait augmenter l'épaisseur de la couche d'électrolyte séparant le métal de l'anode. Mais la résistance électrique de cette couche étant très élevée, cela entraînerait une augmentation de la consommation d'énergie. Un aspect important de l'art du fabricant d'aluminium consiste à minimiser la distance entre l'anode et le métal afin de réduire les coûts de production, et à agencer convenablement les conducteurs extérieurs à la cuve afin que le champ magnétique qu'ils engendrent ne provoque pas de mouvements indésirables dans les fluides.

Dans cette brève présentation, nous avons mis l'accent sur les phénomènes magnétiques et hydrodynamiques car ils constituent l'objet essentiel de ce travail. Nous ne considèrerons pas dans notre modélisation des aspects importants de la fabrication de l'aluminium : phénomènes thermiques (solidification du bain, modification de sa conductivité électrique avec la température), réactions chimiques (influence de la composition du bain, émanations gazeuses à l'anode), effet d'écran électromagnétique du caisson en acier entourant la cuve. Néanmoins, pour être complet, et dans la perspective de travaux futurs, nous consacrons le premier chapitre à la description de l'ensemble de ces phénomènes.

Nous allons à présent établir le modèle qui régit l'interaction entre le champ magnétique et les fluides et qui nous servira de base dans la suite.

Le domaine d'étude Ω est l'intérieur de la cuve à électrolyse, son bord est noté Γ . La cuve enferme deux fluides visqueux et incompressibles, l'aluminium et la cryolithe, supposés non miscibles. La masse volumique, la viscosité dynamique et la conductivité électrique de l'aluminium (resp. de la cryolithe) sont notés ρ_1 , η_1 , σ_1 (resp. ρ_2 , η_2 , σ_2). Toutes ces quantités sont supposées constantes. Pour fixer les idées, la masse volumique de l'aluminium est à peine supérieure à celle de la cryolithe ($\rho_1 \approx 1,07\rho_2$), alors que sa conductivité électrique σ_1 est dix mille fois plus élevée que σ_2 . Le champ de vitesse dans les fluides est noté u, la masse volumique ρ , le champ de pression p, la densité de courant électrique j et l'induction magnétique B. Ces champs sont définis sur $\Omega \times [0, +\infty[$, la première variable représente la position dans l'espace, la seconde le temps. Les fluides sont soumis à la pesanteur ρg et à la force de Laplace $j \times B$. Les équations de Navier-Stokes pour les fluides incompressibles et la conservation de la masse s'écrivent sur $\Omega \times [0, T]$:

$$\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div} (\rho u) = 0,$$

$$\partial_t (\rho u) + \operatorname{div} (\rho u \otimes u) - \operatorname{div} (2\eta(\rho)d(u)) + \nabla p = \rho g + j \times B,$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0,$$

où d(u) est le gradient symétrisé de u. Remarquer que la fonction ρ , définie sur $\Omega \times [0, +\infty[$, ne prend que les valeurs ρ_1 et ρ_2 . La fonction η est définie sur $[0, +\infty[$, et vérifie $\eta(\rho_i) = \eta_i$ pour i = 1, 2. La vitesse u est supposée satisfaire la condition aux limites

$$u = 0 \operatorname{sur} \Gamma \times [0, \infty[.$$

Le champ magnétique H, l'induction magnétique B, l'induction électrique D, et le champ électrique E vérifient sur tout l'espace $\mathbb{R}^3 \times [0, +\infty[$ les équations de Maxwell :

$$div D = \rho_e,$$

$$rot H = j + \partial_t D,$$

$$div B = 0,$$

$$\partial_t B + rot E = 0.$$

où ρ_e est la densité de charges électriques. Nous ferons les hypothèses suivantes, communément admises dans notre contexte (voir W.F. Hughes et F.J. Young [55] ou R. Moreau [70]) :

- les champs E, D, B et H sont liés par les relations $D = \epsilon E$ et $\mu H = B$, où μ et ϵ désignent la perméabilité magnétique et la permitivité électrique. La quantité ϵ n'interviendra plus dans la suite et nous prendrons pour μ sa valeur μ_0 dans le vide. Puisque B et H sont liés par une simple relation de proportionnalité, nous faisons le choix dans la suite de n'utiliser que la variable B et nous commettrons désormais l'abus de langage classique consistant à appeler B "champ magnétique".
- nous négligerons la quantité $\partial_t D$ correspondant aux courants de déplacement.
- -l'aluminium et la cryolithe étant des milieux en mouvement, la loi d'Ohm s'écrit

$$j = \sigma(\rho)(E + u \times B),$$

où σ est une fonction définie sur $[0, +\infty)$ vérifiant $\sigma(\rho_i) = \sigma_i, i = 1, 2$.

Les équations de Maxwell sont *a priori* posées sur tout l'espace. Néanmoins, nous limitons notre étude au domaine borné Ω occupé par les fluides et nous nous donnons des conditions aux limites sur $\partial \Omega \times [0, +\infty]$:

$$\begin{cases} E \times n &= k \times n, \\ B.n &= q. \end{cases}$$
(1)

Sous ces hypothèses, les équations vérifiées par E, B et j sont donc :

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \operatorname{rot} B &=& \mu j, & (\operatorname{Maxwell-Ampère}) \\ \operatorname{div} B &=& 0, & (\operatorname{Gauss\ magnétique}) \\ \partial_t B + \operatorname{rot} E &=& 0, & (\operatorname{Maxwell-Faraday}) \\ j &=& \sigma(\rho)(E+u\times B). & (\operatorname{loi\ d'Ohm}) \end{array}$$

En éliminant E à l'aide de la loi d'Ohm et de l'équation de Maxwell-Ampère, l'équation de Maxwell-Faraday s'écrit :

$$\partial_t B + \operatorname{rot}\left(\frac{1}{\mu\sigma(\rho)}\operatorname{rot}B\right) = \operatorname{rot}\left(u \times B\right).$$

En éliminant également E dans les conditions aux limites, (1) devient :

$$\begin{cases} \frac{1}{\mu\sigma} \operatorname{rot} B \times n - (u \times B) \times n &= k \times n, \\ B.n &= q. \end{cases}$$

Nous utiliserons ces conditions aux limites générales dans certaines expériences de MHD simulées au Chapitre 7 (écoulement dans des tuyères). Néanmoins, dans la modélisation de l'électrolyse de l'aluminium, u étant nul au bord, ces relations se réduisent à

$$\begin{cases} \frac{1}{\mu\sigma} \operatorname{rot} B \times n &= k \times n, \\ B.n &= q. \end{cases}$$

Compte tenu enfin de l'équation de Maxwell-Ampère, la force de Laplace présente au second membre de l'équation de Navier-Stokes s'écrit

$$j \times B = \frac{1}{\mu} \operatorname{rot} B \times B.$$

Regroupant toutes ces relations, nous modélisons donc l'évolution de ρ , u, p et B dans la cuve à électrolyse par le système d'équations aux dérivées partielles suivant posé sur $\Omega \times [0, +\infty[$:

$$\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div}\left(\rho u\right) = 0, \qquad (2)$$

$$\partial_t(\rho u) + \operatorname{div}(\rho u \otimes u) - \operatorname{div}(2\eta d(u)) + \nabla p = \rho g + \frac{1}{\mu} \operatorname{rot} B \times B, \quad (3)$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0, \qquad (4)$$

$$\partial_t B + \operatorname{rot}\left(\frac{1}{\mu\sigma}\operatorname{rot}B\right) = \operatorname{rot}\left(u \times B\right),$$
 (5)

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0, \qquad (6)$$

complété par les conditions aux limites sur $\Gamma \times [0, +\infty[$:

$$u = 0 \tag{7}$$

$$\frac{1}{\mu\sigma} \operatorname{rot} B \times n = k \times n, \tag{8}$$

$$B.n = q, \tag{9}$$

et des conditions initiales sur ρ , u et B.

Les conditions aux limites électromagnétiques constituent une des difficultés de la modélisation. Quelles valeurs prendre en effet dans la pratique pour k et q dans les équations (8) et (9)? Dans certaines expériences, la géométrie du domaine et des hypothèses du type "parois infiniment conductrices" permettent de se donner des conditions aux limites simples pour le champ magnétique. Ce n'est pas le cas dans une cuve à électrolyse. La démarche retenue dans les simulations numériques est la suivante. On commence par calculer un champ B^d créé par l'ensemble des conducteurs extérieurs à la cuve ainsi que par les cuves elles-même (sans fluide en mouvement). C'est ce champ B^d qui est utilisé pour les conditions aux limites du système (2)-(9). En "découplant" ainsi l'intérieur et l'extérieur de la cuve, nous sommes conscient de faire une approximation importante. C'est néanmoins la façon la plus simple de nous concentrer sur notre objectif principal – le comportement magnétohydrodynamique des fluides – tout en prenant en compte l'influence de l'extérieur de façon relativement réaliste.

Selon les chapitres, nous étudions des versions plus ou moins simplifiées du problème (2)-(9). Dans le Chapitre 2, nous considérons ce système avec des conditions aux limites nulles sur B. Dans le Chapitre 3, nous nous restreignons au cas d'un seul fluide et nous négligeons le terme $\partial_t B$. Le couplage avec l'électromagnétisme est purement délaissé au Chapitre 4 où l'on se focalise sur l'aspect multi-fluide. Du point de vue numérique, nous n'avons considéré que le cas d'un seul fluide : le Chapitre 5 ne traite que de l'aspect hydrodynamique, le Chapitre 6 que d'électromagnétisme, les Chapitres 7 et 8 des équations de la MHD stationnaires.

2 Etudes mathématiques

2.1 Existence de solutions pour les équations de la MHD instationnaires multi-fluides (Chapitre 2)

Nous étudions dans le Chapitre 2 le système d'équations aux dérivées partielles (2)-(9).

Notre démarche s'inscrit dans la suite de deux types de travaux : ceux concernant les équations de la MHD pour un seul fluide (par exemple G. Duvaut et J.-L. Lions [30], M. Sermange et R. Temam [83]), et ceux concer-

nant les équations de Navier-Stokes pour plusieurs fluides (P.-L. Lions [65], A. Nouri et F. Poupaud [71]).

La première difficulté de ce problème est liée au couplage non linéaire entre les équations. Nous verrons en fait que les termes de couplage rot $(u \times B)$ et rot $B \times B$ se compensent dans l'équation d'énergie qui s'écrit formellement

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}\rho|u|^{2}+|B|^{2}\,dx+\int_{\Omega}2\eta|d(u)|^{2}+\frac{1}{\mu\sigma}|\operatorname{rot}B|^{2}\,dx=<\rho f,u>.$$

Les estimations a priori qui en découlent sont similaires à celles obtenues pour les équations de Navier-Stokes seules. Typiquement, on s'attend donc à trouver u et B dans $L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)) \cap L^{\infty}(0,T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$.

La seconde difficulté mathématique – bien plus importante que la première – provient de l'équation de transport de la densité : la régularité du champ de vitesse u ne permet pas en effet de résoudre cette équation de façon classique. Pour résoudre ce problème, nous adaptons les travaux de P.-L. Lions [65] sur les équations de Navier-Stokes avec densité variable.

L'idée essentielle est de commencer par prouver l'existence d'une unique solution régulière pour le problème approché suivant :

$$\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div}\left(r_\varepsilon(u)\rho\right) = 0,$$
(10)

$$\partial_t(\rho u) + \operatorname{div}\left(\rho r_\varepsilon(u) \otimes u\right) - \operatorname{div}\left(2\eta_\varepsilon d(u)\right) + \nabla p = \rho f_\varepsilon + \frac{1}{\mu} \operatorname{rot} B \times s_\varepsilon(B), \quad (11)$$

$$\partial_t B + \operatorname{rot}\left(\frac{1}{\mu\sigma_{\varepsilon}}\operatorname{rot}B\right) = \operatorname{rot}\left(u \times s_{\varepsilon}(B)\right),$$
(12)

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0, \tag{13}$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0, \tag{14}$$

où $r_{\varepsilon}(u)$, $s_{\varepsilon}(B)$, η_{ε} , f_{ε} et σ_{ε} sont des régularisations de u, B, η , f et σ . Les termes non linéaires que l'on régularise sont soigneusement choisis de façon à conserver pour ce problème le même type d'égalité d'énergie que pour le problème initial, c'est-à-dire une égalité dans laquelle les termes de couplage disparaissent. L'équation de transport ne pose plus de problème dans ce cas : ses coefficients sont réguliers, on peut donc la résoudre par la méthode des caractéristiques. En utilisant un résultat de compacité de P.-L. Lions (voir p. 71), on prouve ensuite que la solution de ce problème régularisé tend vers une solution du problème initial quand ε tend vers zéro.

Sous des hypothèses de régularité des données que l'on précisera au Chapitre 2, nous établissons ainsi le résultat suivant :

Théorème 1 (Chapitre 2, p. 59)

Le système (2)-(6) admet une solution faible $u \in L^2(0,T;\mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega) \cap L^{\infty}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)), \ \rho \in L^{\infty}(\Omega \times (0,T)) \cap \mathcal{C}(0,T;L^p(\Omega)), \forall p \geq 1 \text{ et } B \in L^2(0,T;\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)) \cap L^{\infty}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)).$ De plus la mesure de $\{x \in \Omega/\alpha \leq \rho(x,t) \leq \beta\}$ est indépendante de $t \geq 0$ pour tout $0 < \alpha \leq \beta < \infty.$

Ce résultat a été publié dans Advances in Differential Equations.

2.2 Etude d'un système MHD simplifié (Chapitre 3)

Dans le cas de l'électrolyse de l'aluminium – comme d'ailleurs dans de nombreux problèmes de MHD – la diffusion hydrodynamique est beaucoup plus faible que la diffusion magnétique. On peut traduire ceci de façon imagée en disant que les phénomènes électromagnétiques s'établissent "infiniment plus vite" que les phénomènes hydrodynamiques. Cette constatation nous conduit à considérer dans le Chapitre 3 un modèle approché des équations de la MHD dans lequel les équations de Navier-Stokes sont transitoires et celles de Maxwell stationnaires. Pour nous concentrer sur ce nouveau type de couplage et pour simplifier l'exposé, nous nous limitons au cas d'un seul fluide et nous fixons $\mu = 1$. Le système que nous considérons est posé sur $\Omega \times [0, +\infty[$:

$$\partial_t u + u \cdot \nabla u - \eta \Delta u = f - \nabla p + \operatorname{rot} B \times B, \qquad (15)$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0, \tag{16}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma} \operatorname{rot} (\operatorname{rot} B) = \operatorname{rot} (u \times B), \qquad (17)$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0, \tag{18}$$

avec les conditions aux limites suivantes sur $\Gamma \times [0, +\infty[$:

$$u = 0, \tag{19}$$

$$B.n = q, \tag{20}$$

$$\operatorname{rot} B \times n = k \times n, \tag{21}$$

et une condition initiale pour $u \operatorname{sur} \Omega$:

$$u|_{t=0} = u_0. (22)$$

L'équation satisfaite par le champ magnétique B est à présent elliptique alors qu'elle était parabolique dans le système (2)-(9). Nous verrons que pour assurer l'ellipticité de l'équation en B, il est naturel d'imposer que la norme de u reste petite dans $L^{\infty}(0,T; \mathbb{L}^3(\Omega))$. Ce contrôle est typiquement possible avec des solutions *fortes* des équations de Navier-Stokes. Pour être assuré de l'existence de telles solutions, nous supposerons les données "assez petites" et régulières. L'idée générale de la preuve est alors de contrôler la norme de u de façon à rendre l'équation en B coercive. L'existence de la solution pour le problème non linéaire est alors obtenue par point fixe de Schauder. Nous établissons le résultat suivant :

Théorème 2 (Chapitre 3, p. 86)

Quand les données u_0 , $1/\eta$, σ , f, q, k sont assez petites et régulières (dans un sens précisé au Chapitre 3, p. 86), il existe un temps $T^* > 0$ tel que le système (15)-(22) ait une unique solution sur $[0, T^*]$. Cette solution satisfait $u \in L^2(0, T^*; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)) \cap L^{\infty}(0, T^*; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))$ et $B \in \mathcal{C}(0, T^*; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)) \cap$ $L^{\infty}(0, T^*; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega))$. Nous montrons ensuite que si l'équation en B n'est pas inversible – ce qui ne peut se produire que si la vitesse est "assez grande"– nous pouvons construire deux solutions distinctes au problème.

La preuve de ce résultat a été acceptée pour publication dans Applied Mathematics Letters (en version abrégée).

2.3 Comportement en temps long d'un système de deux fluides (Chapitre 4)

En vue de mieux comprendre des instabilités constatées lors de la fabrication industrielle de l'aluminium, il est intéressant de savoir ce que l'on peut attendre d'études théoriques sur le comportement en temps long du système de la MHD multi-fluide. Le Chapitre 4 ne constitue qu'une introduction à cette étude puisque nous nous limitons au cas de deux fluides, de densité ρ_1 et ρ_2 , soumis seulement à la gravité. La situation physique est donc simpliste : on s'attend naturellement à obtenir en temps long une interface horizontale, un champ de vitesse nul et le fluide lourd "sous" le fluide léger. Le but ici est de vérifier dans quelle mesure les modèles mathématiques permettent de retrouver ce résultat intuitif.

De nombreuses études ont déjà été consacrées au comportement en temps long des équations de Navier-Stokes (citons par exemple R. Temam [95], C. Guillope [48], J.G Heywood [51], V.A. Solonnikov [86], J.T Beale [7, 9]). Nous proposons un rapide survol de ces travaux au début du Chapitre 4.

Comme nous le verrons, la convergence de la vitesse vers 0 s'établit sans grande difficulté. Le comportement de l'interface est en revanche plus délicat et dépend de la modélisation physique du problème. C'est pourquoi nous considérons quatre modèles : équations de Navier-Stokes linéarisées avec et sans tension de surface, équations de Navier-Stokes non linéaires avec et sans tension de surface. Les conclusions auxquelles nous sommes parvenus dans chaque cas sont très variées. Nous les exposons ici de façon informelle ; elles seront énonçées plus rigoureusement au Chapitre 4.

Commençons par les cas linéarisés. Nous nous plaçons dans un repère orthonormé (e_x, e_y, e_z) , e_z indiquant la direction verticale. Nous supposons que l'interface est décrite par une fonction $z = \psi(x, y, t)$ et nous étudions le système suivant qui résulte de la linéarisation des équations de Navier-Stokes autour de l'état d'équilibre (voir p. 101). Par état d'équilibre, nous entendons la configuration ($u = 0, p = p_0, \rho = \rho_0$), où ρ_0 est la densité correspondant à la situation où les deux fluides sont séparés par une interface horizontale z = 0:

$$\begin{cases}
\rho_0 \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} - \Delta u &= -\nabla p - (\psi - \gamma \Delta_{x,y} \psi) \delta_{z=0} e_z, \\
\operatorname{div} u &= 0, \quad \operatorname{sur} \Omega, \\
\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} - u_z &= 0, \quad \operatorname{sur} \operatorname{le} \operatorname{plan} z = 0,
\end{cases}$$
(23)

avec, pour tout t, u(., t) = 0 sur la frontière. Le coefficient γ est relié à la tension de surface.

Théorème 3 (Chapitre 4, p. 112)

Dans le cas linéarisé sans tension de surface ($\gamma = 0$), quand le temps t tend vers l'infini, la vitesse u tend vers 0 dans \mathbb{H}^1 , et la fonction ψ représentant l'interface tend vers 0 dans $H^{-\varepsilon}$ (pour tout $\varepsilon > 0$), et faiblement dans L^2 .

Noter qu'on ne sait pas prouver que ψ tend vers zéro pour la topologie forte de L^2 . A cette remarque près, la conclusion confirme bien l'intuition physique puisque l'interface tend, au moins en un sens faible, vers l'interface horizontale. Si on ajoute de la tension de surface, on a le

Théorème 4 (Chapitre 4, p. 117)

Dans le cas linéarisé avec tension de surface ($\gamma > 0$), quand le temps t tend vers l'infini, la vitesse u tend vers 0 dans \mathbb{H}^1 , et la fonction ψ représentant l'interface tend dans H^1 faible, vers une interface ψ_{∞} solution des équations stationnaires avec u = 0. Si on fait de plus l'hypothèse que la vitesse reste régulière pour tout temps, alors la convergence a lieu dans H^1 et ψ_{∞} correspond à l'unique état stationnaire avec u = 0 ayant les mêmes valeurs aux limites que la donnée initiale $\psi|_{t=0}$.

Le résultat est donc très différent du cas sans tension de surface : on montre que l'interface converge, mieux que dans le cas sans tension, vers un état solution de l'équation stationnaire, mais on ne sait pas identifier cet état. De plus, si on suppose le flot un peu plus régulier, le système "conserve la mémoire" des valeurs aux bords de l'interface initiale : on sait alors identifier la limite de l'interface, mais elle n'est plus conforme à l'intuition physique!

Nous considérons ensuite les équations non linéaires sans tension de surface

$$\partial_t(\rho u) + \operatorname{div}(\rho u \otimes u) - \operatorname{div}(\eta \nabla u) = -\nabla p + \rho e_z,$$

$$\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div}(\rho u) = 0,$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0.$$
(24)

La situation est radicalement différente du cas linéaire où l'on savait identifier la limite de l'interface. Ici, en effet, l'équation stationnaire avec u = 0 s'écrit

$$\rho_{\infty}e_z = \nabla p.$$

L'unique information qui en résulte est que ρ_{∞} est fonction seulement de z, autrement dit que l'interface stationnaire est horizontale. Mais rien ne nous permet de dire qu'elle reste connexe, et l'état limite pourrait donc être une alternance de couches horizontales de densité ρ_1 et ρ_2 . Nous établissons le résultat suivant :

Théorème 5 (Chapitre 4, p. 131)

Dans le cas non linéaire sans tension de surface, quand le temps t tend vers l'infini, la vitesse u tend vers 0 dans \mathbb{H}^1 en un sens faible et la densité ρ tend, également en un sens faible, vers une densité $\rho_{\infty} = \rho_{\infty}(z)$. En dimension deux, $u(\cdot, t)$ tend vers zéro dans $\mathbb{H}^{1-\varepsilon}$, $\forall \varepsilon > 0$.

Ajoutons à présent un terme de tension de surface aux équations non linéaires. Alors que dans les cas précédents nous étions assurés de l'existence des solutions dont nous étudions le comportement, nous devons maintenant postuler l'existence d'une solution ayant une régularité "raisonnable" donnant un sens à nos manipulations. Comme dans le cas linéaire, la tension de surface améliore la convergence de l'interface. Mais nous ne savons, pas plus que dans le cas sans tension de surface, identifier sa limite. Nous prouvons le résultat suivant :

Théorème 6 (Chapitre 4, p. 135)

Dans le cas non linéaire avec tension de surface, sous des hypothèses raisonnables de régularité, la vitesse u tend, en un sens faible, vers zéro dans \mathbb{H}^1 quand le temps t tend vers l'infini. La densité ρ tend vers une densité ρ_{∞} en un sens plus fort que dans le cas sans tension.

Dans aucun des deux modèles non linéaires, nous ne sommes donc capables d'identifier l'état limite des densités ρ_{∞} . Nous verrons qu'il y a en fait une infinité d'états stationnaires possibles. Leurs énergies formant un continuum, nous pourrons exhiber un état stationnaire, limite possible du système, dont l'énergie est arbitrairement proche de l'énergie minimale.

Cette étude sera publiée dans Differential and Integral Equations.

3 Etudes Numériques

Commençons par une remarque sur le choix des espaces d'approximation pour la vitesse et la pression dans les problèmes de Stokes, Navier-Stokes ou de la MHD. Dans l'ensemble de ce travail, nous utilisons souvent les éléments finis Q1/P0. Bien qu'ils ne remplissent pas la condition inf-sup de Brezzi, l'expérience montre que ces éléments donnent en général de bons résultats. Par souci de rigueur, nous avons aussi effectué, en 2D, des tests avec les éléments Q2/P1, qui eux satisfont bien la condition de Brezzi. En 3D, nous n'utilisons que les éléments Q1/P0, excepté dans le Chapitre 8, où nous testons des Q1/Q1 stabilisés.

3.1 Un problème de vitesses parasites (Chapitre 5)

Nous avons été amenés à utiliser le logiciel FIDAP (version 7.52) pour ses capacités intéressantes de traitement d'interface libre. Afin de tester la précision de la position d'une interface calculée par FIDAP, nous avons calculé l'état stationnaire de deux fluides confinés dans une boite, séparés par une interface et soumis à une force dérivant d'un potentiel Φ . La position théorique de l'interface stationnaire est une ligne d'isovaleur de Φ et le champ de vitesse théorique est nul, puisque une force dérivant d'un potentiel n'apporte pas d'énergie au fluide (u = 0 sur le bord). La conclusion de ce test est que le calcul de l'interface est précis, mais le champ de vitesse obtenu est loin d'être nul. Cette situation va naturellement en s'aggravant quand la valeur du nombre de Reynolds augmente.

Nous avons cherché à bien comprendre les raisons de l'apparition de ces vitesses parasites, craignant qu'elles ne masquent, dans des situations plus complexes, le champ de vitesse physique.

Dans le calcul d'interface décrit ci-dessus, le maillage suit le déplacement de l'interface. Nous nous sommes donc demandés dans un premier temps si les vitesses parasites n'étaient pas dues à la déformation du maillage et nous avons effectivement exhibé des exemples où les vitesses parasites n'apparaissent que sur des maillages déformés.

La raison la plus convaincante est néanmoins la façon de traiter numériquement la contrainte d'incompressibilité div u = 0. Regardons, par exemple, le cas d'un fluide soumis à une force dérivant d'un potentiel et satisfaisant les équations de Stokes :

$$\begin{cases} -\frac{1}{Re} \Delta u + \nabla p = -\nabla \phi, \\ \operatorname{div} u = 0, \\ u|_{\Gamma} = 0. \end{cases}$$

En multipliant par u et en intégrant par partie, on obtient l'égalité d'énergie :

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 \, dx = Re \int_{\Omega} \Phi \mathrm{div} \, u \, dx.$$

Le second membre de cette égalité est nul dans le cas continu puisque u est à divergence nulle. En revanche, ce terme n'a pas de raison d'être nul numériquement puisque la contrainte d'incompressibilité est seulement approchée par

$$\int_{\Omega} q \operatorname{div} u \, dx = 0,$$

pour toute fonction q de l'espace dans lequel on approche la pression. Ainsi, à moins que le potentiel Φ n'appartienne à l'espace des fonctions en pression – ce qui a peu de chance de se produire – la force $\nabla \Phi$ apporte une "énergie numérique" au système. C'est cette énergie qui engendre des vitesses parasites.

Une manière naturelle de pallier ce problème et de remplacer le potentiel Φ de la force par sa projection $\Pi_h \Phi$ au sens L^2 sur l'espace des fonctions en pression. Ainsi au lieu d'implémenter la force sous la forme

$$\int_{\Omega} \nabla \Phi . v \, dx,\tag{25}$$

on préfèrera la forme "projetée"

$$\int_{\Omega} \Pi_h \Phi \operatorname{div} v \, dx. \tag{26}$$

Quand la force dérive d'un potentiel connu, nous vérifions sur des exemples que cette méthode suffit à faire disparaître les vitesses parasites.

Quand la force est quelconque, nous déterminons simplement sa partie potentielle par une décomposition de Helmholtz et nous la projetons comme ci-dessus. Notons qu'une démarche analogue a déjà été proposée par O. Besson *et al.* [14]. Nous prouvons le résultat suivant :

Proposition 1 (Chapitre 5, p. 159)

Nous supposons que la force dérive d'un potentiel inconnu et que l'on utilise les éléments finis Q1/P0. Alors, quand le pas h du maillage tend vers zéro, la semi-norme $|.|_1$ de la vitesse calculée par la méthode classique tend vers zéro en O(h) alors que la vitesse calculée après décomposition de Helmholtz et projection du potentiel tend vers zéro en $O(h^2)$.

Ce résultat montre bien l'intérêt de projeter la partie potentielle de la force. Néanmoins il n'explique pas pourquoi, dans certaines expériences, les vitesses parasites n'apparaissent que sur un maillage déformé. Cherchant à établir un lien entre vitesses parasites et déformation du maillage, nous montrons le résultat suivant :

Proposition 2 (Chapitre 5, p. 155)

Sous les hypothèses suivantes :

- on utilise les éléments Q1/P0,

- les éléments du maillage sont des rectangles identiques dont les côtés sont parallèles aux axes de coordonnées,

- la force dérive d'un potentiel de la forme $\Phi(x, y) = \Psi_1(x) + \Psi_2(y) + \beta(x, y)$, où Ψ_1 et Ψ_2 sont deux fonctions arbitraires et β une forme bilinéaire quelconque (ou bien, plus généralement, Φ satisfait la propriété (4.4), p. 149).

Dans ces conditions, la forme classique (25) est égale à la forme projetée (26).

Ceci explique pourquoi avec des forces "simples" (comme, par exemple, la gravité) et sur des maillages droits, aucune vitesse parasite ne se manifeste. Nous donnons un exemple de potentiel qui ne satisfait pas la propriété de la proposition ci-dessus et qui génère des vitesses parasites même sur un maillage droit.

Le contenu de ce chapitre a donné lieu à une publication dans International Journal for Numerical Methods in Fluids.

3.2 Méthodes numériques pour les équations de la magnétostatique (Chapitre 6)

Avant d'étudier la résolution numérique des équations de la MHD, nous nous sommes intéressés aux équations stationnaires vérifiées par le champ magnétique en dehors de tout couplage, autrement dit :

$$\begin{cases} \operatorname{rot}(\operatorname{rot} B) &= f \\ \operatorname{div} B &= 0 \\ \operatorname{rot} B \times n &= k \times n \quad \operatorname{sur} \Gamma \\ B.n &= q \quad \operatorname{sur} \Gamma, \end{cases}$$
(27)

où f, k et q sont des données vérifiant certaines conditions précisées au Chapitre 6.

Les conditions aux limites de ce problème couplent les trois composantes du champ magnétique inconnu B. Contrairement au cas d'un problème de Poisson vectoriel avec conditions aux limites de Dirichlet, la résolution ne peut donc pas se faire en résolvant successivement trois problèmes scalaires sur chaque composante de B.

L'approche la plus naturelle consiste à résoudre le problème vectoriel de manière globale, c'est-à-dire chercher B tel que

$$\int_{\Omega} \operatorname{rot} B \cdot \operatorname{rot} C + \operatorname{div} B \operatorname{div} C \, dx = \int_{\Omega} f \cdot C \, dx + \int_{\Gamma} k \times n \cdot C \, d\sigma$$

et $B.n = q \operatorname{sur} \Gamma$, pour tout C tel que $C.n = 0 \operatorname{sur} \Gamma$.

Notons au passage que la "contrainte" sur la divergence de B n'apparaît pas explicitement dans cette formulation. Nous verrons en fait (Proposition 13, p. 165) que la solution de ce problème variationnel est automatiquement à divergence nulle dès lors que les données k et f satisfont quelques propriétés naturelles d'un point de vue physique (p. 164).

En pratique, nous traitons les conditions aux limites essentielles par pénalisation. Autrement dit nous cherchons B tel que, pour tout C,

$$\int_{\Omega} \operatorname{rot} B \cdot \operatorname{rot} C + \operatorname{div} B \operatorname{div} C \, dx + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_{\Gamma} B \cdot nC \cdot n \, d\sigma = \int_{\Omega} f \cdot C \, dx + \int_{\Gamma} k \times n \cdot C \, d\sigma + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_{\Gamma} q \, C \cdot n \, d\sigma$$

$$(28)$$

où ε est un "petit" paramètre.

Pour résoudre numériquement le problème (28) par éléments finis lagrangiens, nous devons résoudre un système linéaire de 9 blocs $N \times N$, où N est le nombre de nœuds du maillage. L'objet du Chapitre 6 est de comparer cette méthode "naturelle" à une technique permettant de n'avoir à résoudre que des problèmes de taille $N \times N$. Nous allons maintenant décrire cette seconde méthode. L'idée de base de la seconde approche s'inspire de travaux de L. Quartapelle *et al.* [74, 100] sur un problème provenant de la mécanique des fluides dont les conditions aux limites portent sur la divergence et les composantes tangentielles de l'inconnue. La méthode de L. Quartapelle repose elle-même sur la technique des matrices d'influence de R. Glowinski et O. Pironneau [47]. Nous avons étendu leurs méthodes à notre problème.

L'idée de base consiste à écrire B comme la somme de deux vecteurs B_T et $B_{\mathcal{H}}$ définis par

$$\begin{array}{rcl} - \bigtriangleup B_T &=& f \\ B_T \cdot n &=& q & \mathrm{sur} \ \Gamma \\ B_T imes n &=& 0 & \mathrm{sur} \ \Gamma \end{array}$$

 et

$$egin{array}{rcl} & - \bigtriangleup B_{\mathcal{H}} & = & 0 \ & B_{\mathcal{H}} \cdot n & = & 0 & \mathrm{sur} \ & B_{\mathcal{H}} imes n & = & \lambda_1 t_1 + \lambda_2 t_2 & \mathrm{sur} \ & \Gamma \end{array}$$

où t_1 et t_2 sont les tangentes à Γ .

Le vecteur B_T est déterminé par la résolution d'un problème de Poisson vectoriel avec condition aux limites de Dirichlet. Ce problème se découple trivialement en trois problèmes de Poisson scalaires. Déterminer le vecteur $B_{\mathcal{H}}$ revient à calculer ses composantes tangentielles λ_1 et λ_2 . On a donc transformé un problème sur Ω en un problème sur Γ . Sans entrer pour l'instant dans les détails, signalons seulement que la détermination numérique de λ_1 et λ_2 se fait en résolvant un système de taille $(2M) \times (2M)$, où Mest le nombre de nœuds sur le bord. En s'inspirant directement du travail de R. Glowinski et O. Pironneau, on résout ce système sans construire explicitement sa matrice par une méthode de gradient conjugué : à chaque itération, le résultat du produit matrice/vecteur est obtenu en résolvant des problèmes de Poisson scalaires.

Nous avons comparé ces deux méthodes sur divers tests académiques en 2D et en 3D. En terme de précision, les deux techniques conduisent à des résultats sensiblement identiques. En terme de stockage en mémoire, la seconde méthode est beaucoup plus attractive que la première dans la mesure où elle ne requiert que des résolutions de problèmes scalaires. Enfin, nous avons été surpris de constater que les temps de calcul de la seconde méthode n'étaient pas beaucoup plus élevés que ceux de la première. Ceci s'explique probablement par le fait que nous ayons utilisé des méthodes itératives (gradient conjugué préconditionné par factorisation de Cholesky incomplète) pour la résolution des systèmes linéaires : la première méthode est donc défavorisée en temps de calcul par la technique de pénalisation qui dégrade le conditionnement de la matrice.

Un inconvénient de la méthode découplée est qu'elle est mal adpatée au cas où la conductivité électrique est variable. Nous ne l'utiliserons donc pas

pour l'instant dans les simulations numériques de l'électrolyse de l'aluminium.

Le contenu de ce chapitre a été soumis pour publication dans *Calcolo*. Une version abrégée, contenant également des résultats du Chapitre 7, paraîtra dans les actes du congrés ECCOMAS 1998 (Athènes).

3.3 Algorithmes non linéaires pour la MHD stationnaire (Chapitre 7)

Nous abordons au Chapitre 7 la résolution numérique du problème stationnaire de la MHD pour un fluide. Autrement dit nous cherchons une approximation de u, p et B tels que

$$\rho u.\nabla u - \eta \Delta u + \nabla p + \frac{1}{\mu} B \times \operatorname{rot} B = \rho f,$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0,$$

$$\frac{1}{\mu \sigma} \operatorname{rot} (\operatorname{rot} B) - \operatorname{rot} (u \times B) = 0,$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0.$$

La discrétisation se fait par la méthode des éléments finis. On peut classer les algorithmes de résolution des non linéarités en deux grandes catégories : ceux qui traitent les équations de Navier-Stokes et de Maxwell simultanément, et ceux qui découplent les deux problèmes.

Nous utilisons essentiellement deux algorithmes classiques (voir M.D. Gunzburger *et al.* [50, 49]) de la première catégorie : point fixe de Picard et algorithme de Newton-Raphson. Ils nécessitent bien sûr plus de mémoire que les schémas qui découplent les équations, mais ils sont, au regard de nos expériences numériques, beaucoup plus stables.

Ce chapitre est aussi l'occasion de présenter diverses simulations numériques, en 2D et 3D, reproduisant certaines expériences de MHD.

3.4 Eléments finis stabilisés pour la MHD (Chapitre 8)

Nous avons abordé dans le paragraphe précédent des méthodes de résolution des non linéarités du système de la MHD stationnaire. La discrétisation des équations se faisait par la méthode des éléments finis classiques. Il était donc nécessaire, en toute rigueur, d'utiliser une paire d'éléments finis pour la vitesse et la pression satisfaisant la condition inf-sup de Brezzi, ce qui compliquait l'implémentation pratique, particulièrement en 3D. De plus les éléments finis classiques sont mal adaptés à des régimes où la convection domine la diffusion puisque les dérivées sont, par nature, approchées avec des schémas centrés. Ceci risque de poser problème dans le cas des cuves à électrolyse où le nombre de Reynolds est voisin de 10^5 . Il nous a paru intéressant d'appliquer aux équations de la MHD les méthodes d'éléments finis stabilisés de type "streamline diffusion". Ces méthodes, introduites par A.N Brooks et T.J.R Hughes [19], ont donné lieu à de nombreuses études ces dernières années (voir par exemple L.P. Franca *et al* [37, 36]). Elles permettent, d'une part, d'approcher la vitesse et la pression dans le même espace d'éléments finis pour le problème de Stokes. D'autre part, elles stabilisent des calculs où la convection domine la diffusion pour l'équation d'advection-diffusion. Nous espérons hériter de ces deux atouts pour le système de la MHD.

Nous nous intéressons à l'approximation du problème *linéaire* suivant : étant donnés deux champs de vecteurs a et b, trouver $(u, B, p) \in \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega) \times \mathbb{H}^1_n(\Omega) \times L^2_0(\Omega)$ tels que

$$a \cdot \nabla u - \eta \triangle u + \nabla p + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} B = f, \tag{29}$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0, \qquad (30)$$

$$\alpha \operatorname{rot} (\operatorname{rot} B) - \operatorname{rot} (u \times b) = 0, \qquad (31)$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0. \tag{32}$$

avec les conditions aux limites sur Γ

$$u = 0, \tag{33}$$

$$B.n = 0, \tag{34}$$

$$\operatorname{rot} B \times n = 0. \tag{35}$$

Dans un algorithme de point fixe, on aurait $a = u^n$, $b = B^n$ et $u = u^{n+1}$, $B = B^{n+1}$. Avec les notations utilisées jusqu'à présent, $S = 1/\mu$ et $\alpha = 1/\mu\sigma$.

La formulation variationnelle de ce problème s'écrit : trouver $(u, p, B) \in$ $\mathbb{H}_0^1(\Omega) \times L_0^2(\Omega) \times \mathbb{H}_n^1(\Omega)$ tels que pour tout $(v, q, C) \in \mathbb{H}_0^1(\Omega) \times L_0^2(\Omega) \times \mathbb{H}_n^1(\Omega)$

$$\Phi_G(u, B, p; v, C, q) = \langle F_G; v; C; q \rangle$$

avec

$$\Phi_{G}(u, B, p; v, C, q) = \int_{\Omega} (\eta \nabla u \cdot \nabla v + a \cdot \nabla u \cdot v - p \operatorname{div} v + S b \times \operatorname{rot} B \cdot v) dx + \int_{\Omega} q \operatorname{div} u dx + \int_{\Omega} (\alpha S \operatorname{rot} B \cdot \operatorname{rot} C + \alpha S \operatorname{div} B \operatorname{div} C - S u \times b \cdot \operatorname{rot} C) dx,$$

 et

$$\langle F_G; v, C, q \rangle = \int_{\Omega} f \cdot v \, dx$$

Notons V_h , W_h et M_h les espaces d'éléments finis dans lesquels on approche respectivement u, B et p. Dans la méthode des éléments finis classiques, la forme bilinéaire du problème discrétisé est la même que celle du

problème continu. Autrement dit, on cherche $u_h \in V_h$, $B_h \in W_h$ et $p_h \in M_h$ tels que pour tout $(v_h, C_h, q_h) \in (V_h, W_h, M_h)$

$$\Phi_G(u_h, B_h, p_h; v_h, C_h, q_h) = \langle F_G; v_h, C_h, q_h \rangle$$

Dans l'approximation par éléments finis stabilisés que nous proposons au Chapitre 8, on modifie la forme bilinéaire en lui ajoutant une composante Φ_S dépendant du maillage :

$$\begin{split} \Phi_{S}(u, B, p; v, C, q) &= \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} \int_{K} \tau_{u} \quad (a \cdot \nabla u - \eta \bigtriangleup u + \nabla p + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} B) \cdot \\ &\qquad (a \cdot \nabla v + \xi \eta \bigtriangleup v + \nabla q + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} C) \, dx \\ &+ \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} \int_{K} \tau_{b} \quad (-\alpha S \bigtriangleup B - S \operatorname{rot} (u \times b)) \cdot \\ &\qquad (\alpha \xi \bigtriangleup C - \operatorname{rot} (v \times b)) \, dx, \end{split}$$

 et

$$\langle F_S; v, C, q \rangle = \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_K \tau_u \quad f \cdot (a \cdot \nabla v + \xi \eta \Delta v + \nabla q + S b \times \operatorname{rot} C) dx$$

où ξ est une constante valant $-1,\,0$ ou 1 et où τ_u et τ_b sont les paramètres de stabilisation.

Le problème stabilisé s'écrit alors : trouver $u_h \in V_h$, $B_h \in W_h$ et $p_h \in M_h$ tels que pour tout $(v_h, C_h, q_h) \in (V_h, W_h, M_h)$

$$\Phi(u_h, B_h, p_h; v_h, C_h, q_h) = < F; v_h, C_h, q_h >$$
(36)

avec $\Phi = \Phi_G + \Phi_S$ et $F = F_G + F_S$.

Nous établissons le résultat de convergence suivant :

Théorème 7 (Chapitre 8, p. 221)

On note (u, B, p) la solution exacte des équations linéarisées de la MHD (29)-(35), $(\tilde{u}_h, \tilde{B}_h, \tilde{p}_h)$ l'interpolé de (u, B, p) dans $V_h \times W_h \times M_h$ et (u_h, B_h, p_h) la solution obtenue par la méthode des éléments finis stabilisés (36). Alors, sous l'hypothèse $\frac{|a(x)|h_K}{\eta} > 1$, $\forall x \in K, \forall K$, l'erreur d'approximation $(e_u, e_B, e_p) = (\tilde{u}_h - u_h, \tilde{B}_h - B_h, \tilde{p}_h - p_h)$ est majorée ainsi :

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} (\eta |\nabla e_u|^2 + S\alpha |\operatorname{rot} e_B|^2 + S\alpha |\operatorname{div} e_B|^2) \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \tau_b S |\operatorname{rot} (e_u \times b)|^2 \, dx \\
+ \int_{\Omega} \tau_u |a. \nabla e_u + \nabla e_p + Sb \times \operatorname{rot} e_B|^2 \, dx \leq \\
C \left(\left(\lambda_u (||a||_{\infty} h + \eta) + \frac{S^2 h^2}{\alpha} (||b||_{\infty}^2 + h^2 ||\nabla b||_{\infty}^2) \right) h^{2k} |u|_{k+1}^2 \\
+ \left(\frac{\lambda_u h}{||a||_{\infty}} + \frac{h^2}{\eta} \right) h^{2m} |p|_{m+1}^2 \\
+ \left(\lambda_u \frac{S^2 ||b||_{\infty}^2}{||a||_{\infty}} h + \lambda_b \alpha \right) h^{2l} |B|_{l+1}^2 \right).$$

où k, m et l désignent l'ordre des éléments finis de V_h , M_h et W_h .

Les premières simulations numériques effectuées sont encourageantes : elles confirment que, sur une expérience 3D significative d'un point de vue industriel, les méthodes de stabilisation permettent effectivement l'utilisation de nombres de Reynolds beaucoup plus élevés. Elles confirment également l'intérêt de stabiliser l'équation de Maxwell quand le nombre de Reynolds est élevé, même quand le nombre de Reynolds magnétique est faible. Ce point, qui ne va pas de soi *a priori*, sera explicité dans la preuve du théorème de convergence.

4 Conclusions et perspectives

Notre travail, effectué en collaboration avec le Laboratoire de Recherche des Fabrications (LRF) d'Aluminium Pechiney, a débouché sur la simulation numérique de modèles simplifiés des cuves à électrolyse. Ces expériences ont d'ores et déjà permis de tirer des conclusions – qui ne figurent pas dans cette thèse pour des raisons de confidentialité – sur certains aspects de la modélisation des cuves dans le cadre industriel.

Mais il est clair que des étapes importantes restent encore à franchir. L'objectif principal est maintenant la prise en compte de l'interface libre dans les simulations numériques. Les phénomènes d'aimantation et les aspects thermiques (voir Chapitre 1) posent également d'intéressants problèmes de modélisation. D'un point de vue plus académique, nous avons également l'intention d'approfondir l'étude des méthodes de stabilisation pour la MHD analysées au Chapitre 8.

Du point de vue théorique, nous nous intéressons à des questions de régularité pour le système de Navier-Stokes bi-fluide et pour le système de la MHD. Les résultats de régularité globale sont en général obtenus pour des données initiales "petites". Nous pensons pouvoir nous affranchir de ce type d'hypothèse dans certains cas particuliers. Cette question, brièvement évoquée à la fin du Chapitre 4, sera abordée dans de futurs travaux.

5 Appendice - Ecoulements à faible nombre de Mach

Nous faisons figurer en appendice de cette thèse un travail concernant des schémas numériques semi-implicites pour des écoulements compressibles à faible nombre de Mach. Cette étude, réalisée en collaboration avec Nathalie Glinsky-Olivier et Bernard Larrouturou, n'est pas liée à l'électrolyse de l'aluminium, aussi nous ne la présentons que brièvement dans cette introduction. Considérons les équations d'Euler pour un fluide compressible en 1D :

$$W_t + F_x = 0 av{37}$$

avec :

$$W = (\rho, \rho u, E)^T , \quad F = (\rho u, \rho u^2 + p, u(E+p))^T , \quad (38)$$

$$p = (\gamma - 1) \left(E - \frac{1}{2} \rho u^2 \right) . \tag{39}$$

Ce système est hyperbolique, autrement dit la matrice jacobienne $A(W) = \frac{\partial F}{\partial W}$ est diagonalisable, et l'on peut écrire :

$$A = T\Lambda T^{-1} , \qquad (40)$$

où Λ est la matrice Diag(u - c, u, u + c); $c = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma p}{\rho}}$ étant la vitesse du son et u celle du fluide.

La stabilité d'un schéma explicite est soumis à la condition classique de CFL :

$$\Delta t \le \frac{\Delta x}{|u| + c}$$

Dans un écoulement à faible nombre de Mach, le rapport |u|/c est par définition petit. Par conséquent, le pas de temps utilisable dans un schéma explicite est typiquement de l'ordre de grandeur du pas de temps "acoustique" $\Delta x/c$, alors que l'on aimerait travailler avec le pas temps "fluide" $\Delta x/|u|$ qui est bien plus grand.

Un schéma totalement implicite permet de lever la condition sur le pas de temps, mais son comportement est trop diffusif.

Pour tenter de conjuguer les qualités des deux schémas, on peut utiliser un schéma explicite pour la partie relative au fluide et implicite pour la partie acoustique. Le condition de CFL s'écrit alors

$$\Delta t \le \frac{\Delta x}{|u|},$$

ce qui est beaucoup moins contraignant que pour un schéma complètement explicite et on espère un comportement moins diffusif qu'avec une méthode entièrement implicite.

Notre travail consiste en l'extension à l'ordre 2 de deux schémas semiimplicites d'ordre 1 proposés par G. Fernandez dans [32] et par T. Buffard dans [20]. Il a donné lieu à un rapport de Recherche INRIA (numéro 3132, 1997).

6 Liste des publications

- Articles :
 - J.-F. Gerbeau, C. Le Bris, Existence of solution for a densitydependent magnetohydrodynamic equation, Advances in Differential Equations, Vol. 2, Num. 3, p. 427-452, 1997.
 - J.-F. Gerbeau, C. Le Bris, M. Bercovier, Spurious velocities in the steady flow of an incompressible fluid subjected to external forces, *International Journal for Numerical Methods in Fluids*, Vol. 25, p. 679-695, 1997.
 - 3. J.-F. Gerbeau, C. Le Bris, On the long time behaviour of the solution to the two-fluids incompressible Navier-Stokes equations, accepté pour publication dans *Differential and Integral Equations*.
 - 4. J.-F. Gerbeau, C. Le Bris, On a coupled sytem arising in Magnetohydrodynamics, accepté pour publication dans *Applied Mathematics Letter*.
- Communication :
 - 1. J.-F. Gerbeau, Comparison of numerical methods for solving a magnetostatic problem, application to the magnetohydrodynamic equations, communication acceptée au congrès ECCOMAS 1998 (actes à paraître chez Wiley).
- Rapports de recherche :
 - J.-F. Gerbeau, N. Glinsky-Olivier, B. Larrouturou, Semi-implicit Roe-type fluxes for low-Mach number flows, Rapport de recherche INRIA No 3132, 1997.
 - J.-F. Gerbeau, C. Le Bris, Comparison between two numerical methods for a magnetostatic problem, Rapport de recherche CER-MICS No 97-116, soumis pour publication dans *Calcolo*.

Partie I

Présentation de l'électrolyse de l'aluminium

Chapitre 1

Présentation de l'électrolyse de l'aluminium

L'objectif de ce chapitre est de proposer un survol des divers aspects de l'électrolyse de l'aluminium et quelques références bibliographiques concernant leurs modélisations mathématiques. Il prolonge et complète le travail préliminaire de C. Le Bris [LB].

1 Description du procédé Hall-Héroult

L'aluminium, comme la plupart des métaux, n'existe pas à l'état pur dans la nature, mais sous forme d'oxydes et de silicates. La seule technique industrielle utilisée actuellement pour le fabriquer est la méthode mise au point indépendamment par Paul Héroult et Charles Hall en 1886. Dans le procédé Hall-Héroult, l'aluminium est fabriqué en phase liquide dans une cuve à électrolyse par réduction de l'alumine (Al_2O_3 , obtenue à partir de la bauxite) dissoute dans un bain électrolytique. La Figure 1.1 montre le schéma en coupe d'une cuve vue de face. On y trouve :

- les anodes : les plus utilisées sont essentiellement composées de coke de pétrole précuit. C'est par elles que le courant électrique arrive dans la cuve et elles fournissent le carbone nécessaire à l'électrolyse. La durée de vie de chacune d'entre elles est de vingt jours environ. Une cuve comporte jusqu'à quarante anodes.
- le bain électrolytique : il contient majoritairement de la cryolithe (Na_3AlF_6) afin de constituer un solvant pour l'alumine qui ne représente qu'environ 10% de sa masse. La température de fusion de l'alumine est très élevée (2040°C); pour pouvoir travailler à une température plus basse on ajoute des produits fluorés (AlF_3 et CaF_2). La hauteur du bain est voisine de 20 cm. Les anodes sont partiellement immergées dans le bain, sur environ 15 cm. A l'interface bain/anodes se produit un dégagement gazeux de dioxyde de carbone. L'alumium


FIG. 1.1: Schéma d'une cuve vue de face.

est produit 5 cm plus bas, à l'interface bain/métal. Le bain n'est quasiment pas consommé durant l'électrolyse. Sa résistance électrique est élevée (conductivité de l'ordre de 2, 5 $10^2 \Omega^{-1} m^{-1}$), sa masse volumique est voisine de 2150 kg/m³. Sa température est comprise entre 940°C et 970°C . Sa température de fusion étant voisine de 960°C , une partie est donc solidifiée et forme un talus le long des parois de la cuve (voir Figure 1.1).

- l'aluminium fondu : c'est un fluide visqueux incompressible très homogène (moins de 0,6% d'impuretés) de masse volumique 2 300 kg/m³ (seulement 7% de plus que le bain) et extrèmement conducteur d'un point de vue électrique (conductivité 3,5 $10^6 \Omega^{-1} m^{-1}$, soit 4 ordres de grandeur de plus que celle du bain).
- la cathode : elle est constituée de blocs dans lesquels sont scellées des barres en acier dont le rôle est de collecter le courant électrique.

Une cuve fait environ un mètre de haut, quatre de large et dix de long. Elle est traversée de haut en bas par un courant pouvant atteindre de nos jours 300 000 ampères. La différence de potentiel entre les anodes et la cathode est de l'ordre de 4 volts. Plus d'une centaine de cuves (288 dans certaines usines) sont montées en série, la cathode de chacune étant reliée aux anodes de la suivante. La différence de potentiel entre la première et la dernière cuve d'une série peut donc atteindre 1200 volts. La Figure 1.2 montre la photographie d'une série vue de côté (le schéma de la Figure 1.1 correspond à une coupe perpendiculaire au plan de cette photographie). La conductivité électrique de l'aluminium fondu étant très élevée, l'interface entre les deux fluides (interface bain/métal) joue, d'un point de vue électrochimique, le rôle de la cathode. C'est donc à ce niveau qu'est produit l'aluminium.

De nos jours, l'injection de l'alumine (Al_2O_3) dans les cuves se fait automatiquement et de façon à peu près continue (environ 2 kg par minute). Deux opérations essentielles s'effectuent encore manuellement :

- tous les deux jours environ, on récupère l'aluminium fondu par aspiration.
- il faut changer au moins une ou deux anodes par jour dans chaque cuve.

De nos jours, la fabrication d'une tonne d'aluminium requiert environ 1,9 tonnes d'alumine, 500 kg de carbone, 50 kg de produits fluorés et 13 MégaWh d'électricité (16 MégaWh en 1950). Les plus grosses cuves produisent jusqu'à 2,3 tonnes d'aluminium par jour. En France, les deux principales usines sont celles de Saint-Jean de Maurienne et de Dunkerque qui ont respectivement une capacité annuelle de production de 122 000 et 215 000 tonnes. Pour donner un ordre de grandeur, la puissance électrique à fournir à une usine correspond environ à une demi-tranche de centrale nucléaire.



FIG. 1.2: Photo d'une série de cuves vues de côté (Aluminium Pechiney).

2 Considérations énergétiques

Usuellement, deux critères sont utilisés pour mesurer l'efficacité du processus de fabrication : le rendement Faraday et le rendement énergétique.

Le rendement Faraday est le rapport entre la quantité d'aluminium effectivement produite et la quantité théorique prévue par la loi de Faraday compte tenu du courant électrique fourni. Il atteint de nos jours 95% dans les meilleures cuves, nous y reviendrons dans la Section 3.1 consacrée aux réactions chimiques.

Le rendement énergétique est une quantité plus significative mais aussi plus délicate à définir. Usuellement, il désigne le rapport entre l'énergie thermochimique nécessaire à la réaction d'oxydo-réduction et l'énergie électrique fournie à la cuve. Ce rapport prend en compte en particulier le rendement Faraday. Il est voisin de 50% dans les cuves modernes. Nous allons expliquer brièvement cette valeur.

Le bilan énergétique d'une cuve à électrolyse peut s'écrire :

$$W_{elec} = \Delta H + W_{therm},$$

où W_{elec} est l'énergie électrique fournie, ΔH est la variation d'enthalpie liée aux réactions chimiques et W_{therm} la chaleur dissipée vers l'extérieur de la cuve. L'énergie électrique W_{elec} est proportionnelle à la différence de potentiel électrique de la cuve. On a la relation :

$$W_{elec} = \frac{1}{x} z F E, \tag{1}$$

où x est le rendement Faraday, z le nombre de moles d'électrons intervenant dans la réduction (z = 3 dans notre cas), F la constante de Faraday et E la différence de potentiel électrique de la cuve. Pour E = 4 V, et x = 0,95, on trouve $W_{elec} = 1\,219$ kJ/mol soit,

$$W_{elec} = 12,5 \text{ MWh/tonne d'Al.}$$
 (2)

La variation d'enthalpie totale ΔH est la somme de l'énergie chimique ΔG nécessaire à la décomposition de l'alumine à une température T donnée, de la variation d'entropie ΔS multipliée par T, et de l'énergie qui faut fournir aux réactifs pour porter leur température de 25°C à T = 977°C.

L'énergie thermique fournie à la cuve sous forme d'effet Joule a donc une "bonne composante" – celle contenue dans ΔH – qui sert à chauffer les réactifs, et une "mauvaise" composante – celle que nous notons W_{therm} – qui est perdue à l'extérieur.

Pour la réaction

$$2Al_2O_3 + 3C \longrightarrow 4Al + 3CO_2$$

à $T = 977^{\circ}$ C, on a $\Delta G = 342 \text{ kJ/mol}$, soit 3, 5 MWh/tonne d'Al. La variation d'enthalpie correspondante est de 5, 64 MWh/tonne d'Al à $T = 977^{\circ}$ C. En y ajoutant l'énergie nécessaire pour chauffer les composants on trouve $\Delta H = 6, 34 \text{ MWh/tonne d'Al}$. En prenant en compte le rendement Faraday x, on peut montrer (*cf.* K. Grjotheim et H. Kvande [GK], p. 20)

$$\Delta H = 4,91 + rac{1,43}{x} \; \mathrm{MWh/tonne} \; \mathrm{d'Al}.$$

Avec un rendement Faraday x = 95%, la quantité d'énergie théorique nécessaire à la fabrication de l'aluminium est donc

$$\Delta H = 6, 4 \text{ MWh/tonne d'Al.}$$
(3)

qu'il faut comparer à (2). On estime donc les pertes d'énergie à 6, 1 MWh/tonne d'Al, et le rendement énergétique à environ 50%.

La relation (1) nous indique qu'il y a deux moyens d'économiser de l'énergie :

- augmenter le rendement Faraday x, ce qui se faire par exemple en diminuant la température du bain ou en modifiant sa composition chimique.
- diminuer la différence de potentiel E entre les bornes de la cuve, par exemple en diminuant la distance entre l'anode et l'alumium.

Les sections qui suivent ont pour but d'expliquer les moyens d'agir sur ces paramètres.

3 Description des phénomènes physico-chimiques

3.1 Electrochimie

3.1.1 Réactions d'oxydo-réduction

La synthèse de l'aluminium par électrolyse est le résultat de réactions d'oxydo-réduction extrèmement complexes dont le mécanisme fait encore l'objet de nombreuses recherches. Indépendamment de la théorie admise pour l'électrolyse, la réaction globale est la suivante :

$$2Al_2O_3 + 3C \longrightarrow 4Al + 3CO_2.$$

L'alumine est dissoute dans de la cryolithe (AlF_6Na_3) . De manière très simplifiée, on peut dire (voir R. Gadeau et R. Guillot [GG]) que l'alumine se décompose selon

$$Al_2O_3 \longrightarrow 2Al^{3+} + 3O^{2-}$$

puis, l'oxydo-réduction est le bilan des deux demi-réactions : à la cathode

$$2Al^{3+} + 6e^- \longrightarrow 2Al,$$

et à l'anode

$$\begin{cases} 3\alpha O^{2-} + \frac{3\alpha}{2}C & \longrightarrow & \frac{3\alpha}{2}CO_2 + 6\alpha e^-, \\ 3(1-\alpha)O^{2-} + 3(1-\alpha)C & \longrightarrow & 3(1-\alpha)CO + 6(1-\alpha)e^-. \end{cases}$$

Le dioxyde et le monoxyde de carbone produits expliquent le dégagement gazeux observé au niveau des anodes.

Dans ce schéma extrèmement simplifié, la cryolithe, n'intervenant pas dans les réactions, ne jouerait que le rôle d'un solvant. En réalité, on admet généralement qu'elle se dissocie complètement en ions sodium (Na^+) et en ions hexafluoroaluminates (AlF_6^{3-}) . Ces derniers se dissocient à nouveau en AlF_4^- et F^- .

Entrer plus dans le détail des réactions dépasserait l'objectif de cette introduction. Signalons simplement que ce sont les ions de sodium provenant de la cryolithe qui assurent la quasi totalité (95%) du transport du courant électrique dans le bain électrolytique (contrairement aux métaux, où l'électricité est transportée par les électrons).

3.1.2 Différences de potentiel

La consommation d'énergie électrique d'une cuve étant directement reliée à sa tension, il est important de bien comprendre l'origine des diverses chutes de potentiel électrique.

Il y a tout d'abord une différence de potentiel (d.d.p.) minimale pour que l'électrolyse soit thermodynamiquement possible dans des conditions idéales (réactions réversibles, pas de courant électrique). Pour l'électrolyse de l'aluminium, elle est de l'ordre de 1,2 volts (quand on prend en compte la réaction avec le carbone des anodes).

Il y a ensuite une surtension liée au passage du courant électrique (0,5 volt à l'anode et 0,1 volt à la cathode). Cette surtension est causée par la modification des concentrations chimiques due à la présence d'une zone de diffusion au voisinage immédiat des électrodes (voir par exemple E. Yeager, J. O'M. Bockris, B.E. Conway [YBC]).

Il y a enfin une d.d.p. liée à la résistance ohmique du bain (entre 1,3 et 2 volts), des anodes (0,2 volt) et des cathodes (entre 0,3 et 0,6 volt).

La première d.d.p. est de nature thermodynamique, la deuxième cinétique, la troisième ohmique. Au total, la d.d.p. aux bornes de la cuve est comprise entre 4 et 4,6 volts.

3.1.3 Loi de Faraday

La loi de Faraday dit que la quantité de produit formée à chaque électrode au cours d'une réaction électrolytique est proportionnelle à la quantité de charges électriques traversant l'électrolyte et à la masse molaire du produit formé. Ceci se traduit par la relation :

$$P = \frac{M}{zF}I,$$

où P est la masse de produit formée par unité de temps, M la masse molaire, z le nombre de moles d'électrons impliquées dans la réaction, F la constante de Faraday, I l'intensité du courant.

En notant P_0 la masse de produit effectivement formée par unité de temps, le rapport P_0/P désigne ce que l'on a appelé plus haut le *rendement Faraday*. Dans les meilleures cuves et sur une durée limitée, le rendement Faraday peut atteindre 95%. La moyenne se situe plutôt aux alentours de 90%. Donnons un bref apperçu des facteurs qui dégradent ce rendement :

 une partie de l'aluminium produit a tendance à se recombiner avec le dioxyde de carbone selon la "réaction inverse" :

$$\frac{2}{3}Al + CO_2 \longrightarrow \frac{1}{3}Al_2O_3 + CO.$$
(4)

C'est la cause essentielle de la baisse du rendement Faraday. Pour limiter cette réaction, on cherche à augmenter la densité du bain et la tension interfacique (afin d'éviter l'intrusion de l'aluminium fondu dans le bain). Ceci peut s'obtenir en diminuant la température de l'électrolyte et en modifiant sa composition chimique, par exemple par l'ajout d' Al_3F .

 l'agitation de l'interface bain/métal et les dégagements gazeux à l'anode contribuent aussi à diminuer le rendement Faraday. - quand la concentration en alumine est trop basse, il n'y a plus assez d'ions O^{2-} pour alimenter l'électrolyse de l'aluminium. Une autre réaction se produit alors entre les composés fluorés entraînant un dégagement gazeux qui crée une couche isolante sous l'anode. La tension de la cuve peut alors augmenter jusqu'à 50 volts (on dit que la cuve "brûle"). Ce phénomène, appelé *effet d'anode*, provoque entre autre une chute du rendement Faraday. C'est pour éviter ceci que l'on alimente les cuves en alumine de façon quasi-continue. Ce problème, crucial il y a quelques années, est bien maîtrisé de nos jours.

3.2 Phénomènes thermiques

Nous avons vu dans la section concernant les aspects énergétiques que seule une partie de l'énergie calorifique fournie à la cuve – environ 20% – était théoriquement nécessaire à la production de l'aluminium, le reste étant dissipé à l'extérieur.

Il est clair que la mauvaise isolation thermique d'une cuve entraîne des pertes de chaleur importantes et donc une dégradation du rendement énergétique. Mais il ne faut pas croire qu'une cuve parfaitement isolée soit la panacée. Précisons un peu ce point important.

Nous avons brièvement mentionné plus haut qu'une partie du bain électrolytique se solidifiait. La maîtrise de ce phénomène est essentielle pour le bon comportement de la cuve. Le bain solidifié a en effet deux rôles majeurs :

- il protège les parois verticales de la cuve dont les matériaux ne supporteraient pas longtemps des températures excessives;
- en se déposant sur la périphérie de la cathode, il l'isole électriquement et modifie donc la densité de courant dans les fluides. On constate empiriquement que ceci contribue à stabiliser les mouvements du métal.

Une trop bonne isolation thermique impliquerait une augmentation de la température et empêcherait donc la solidification du bain et ses effets bénéfiques.

La solidification n'est pas le seul avantage de travailler à "basse température" : en diminuant la température du bain, on augmente sa densité, la tension interfacique, et on diminue la solubilité de l'aluminium dans le bain. Tout ceci limite la réaction inverse (4) et permet donc une augmentation du rendement Faraday : on estime que celui-ci augmente de 1 à 2% quand la température du bain baisse de 10°C . La température du bain est donc choisie très proche de sa température de fusion (à peine 5 à 10°C au-dessus).

Une température trop basse conduit, *a contrario*, à une formation de bain solidifié excessive. Trop de bain solidifié entraîne une trop grande isolation électrique de la cathode et donc une augmentation de la tension de la cuve et une dégradation de la densité de courant. Ceci peut conduire à une diminution du rendement Faraday supérieure à l'augmentation causée par la baisse de la température.

Tous ces phénomènes montrent la subtilité et l'importance d'une maîtrise extrèmement précise du champ de température dans la cuve.

3.3 Phénomènes électromagnétiques

3.3.1 Magnétohydrodynamique. Action des conducteurs extérieurs.

L'intensité des courants électriques traversant les cuves et les conducteurs extérieurs est, nous l'avons déjà signalé, extrèmement élevée. Un champ magnétique intense, de l'ordre de 0,01 tesla, règne donc dans le milieu ambiant. A titre d'anecdote, ce champ est assez puissant pour dévier significativement un trousseau de clefs tenu à environ un mètre d'une cuve! D'un point de vue pratique, cela impose l'utilisation d'outils amagnétiques dans les usines à électrolyse.

Le bain électrolytique et l'aluminium fondu sont soumis à une force de Laplace résultant de l'interaction entre le courant électrique j qui les traverse et le champ magnétique B qui règne à l'intérieur de la cuve. Cette force crée dans les fluides un champ de vitesse u qui à son tour modifie le champ magnétique selon l'équation :

$$\partial_t B + \operatorname{rot}\left(\frac{1}{\mu\sigma}\operatorname{rot}B\right) = \operatorname{rot}\left(u \times B\right),$$

où σ est la conductivité électrique, μ la perméabilité magnétique (pour l'établissement de cette équation, nous renvoyons à l'introduction de cette thèse, p. 15). Il est important de noter que le couplage se fait non seulement par rot ($u \times B$), mais aussi par le terme $\frac{1}{\mu\sigma}$, puisque σ dépend du fluide.

Les mouvements ont lieu essentiellement dans le plan horizontal dont les dimensions, rappelons-le, sont d'environ quatre mètres sur dix. Mais il est essentiel de prendre également en compte les mouvements verticaux, qui sont eux de l'ordre de quelques dizaines de centimètres. En effet, les déformations de l'interface qui sépare le bain de l'aluminium ont des conséquences importantes sur le processus :

- la modification de la distance entre les anodes et le métal a une influence sur le rendement électrique de la cuve;
- les mouvements de l'interface peuvent devenir instables. Quand une petite vague se forme sous l'anode, la résistance électrique du bain diminue à cet endroit, le courant augmente donc, ainsi que la force de Laplace agissant sur la vague. Le phénomène peut donc s'amplifier ("pinch effect"), et au pire, provoquer un court-circuit si la vague d'aluminium atteint l'anode.

Au champ magnétique propre créé par les courants de la cuve, il faut ajouter le champ créé par les autres cuves et par les conducteurs qui relient les cuves entre elles. Ce champ magnétique "extérieur" a une grande influence sur la dynamique des fluides et la position de l'interface. La manière d'agencer les conducteurs et les cuves les unes par rapport aux autres est donc un point essentiel de l'élaboration d'une série. Depuis des décennies, l'intensité du courant électrique utilisé pour l'électrolyse n'a cessé d'augmenter, rendant encore plus sensibles les aspects magnétiques. Par exemple, le cap des 170 000 ampères n'a pu être franchi qu'en reconsidérant complètement l'agencement des cuves : actuellement les cuves sont disposées "en travers" (comme sur la photo de la Figure 1.2) alors qu'elles étaient disposées "en long" à l'époque où le courant était moins élevé.

3.3.2 Effet d'écran magnétique

Comme nous l'avons signalé en introduction, nous faisons dans l'ensemble de ce travail, l'abus de langage classique consistant à appeler "champ magnétique" le vecteur B qui désigne en fait l'*induction* magnétique. Ce qu'il convient d'appeler *champ* magnétique est en général noté H. Rappelons, pour fixer les idées, que c'est l'induction magnétique B qui est à divergence nulle et que c'est le champ magnétique H qui satisfait le théorème d'Ampère. L'unité de B est le tesla, celle de H est l'ampère par mètre. Dans cette section où il est question de ferromagnétisme, nous utiliserons les dénominations correctes.

Dans le vide B et H sont liés par une simple relation de proportionnalité :

$$B = \mu_0 H$$

où $\mu_0 = 4\pi 10^{-7}$ S.I. (perméabilité magnétique du vide).

Dans les milieux matériels la situation est plus compliquée. Soumis à l'influence d'un champ magnétique produit par une source extérieure, un corps acquiert une aimantation induite. L'aimantation M acquise par le milieu est fonction de l'induction totale B, mais on peut l'exprimer en fonction de Hpar la relation $M = \chi H$ où χ est la susceptibilité magnétique. On a alors

$$B = \mu_0 (H + M) = \mu_0 (1 + \chi) H,$$

qu'on peut écrire

$$B = \mu_0 \mu_r H,$$

où μ_r est la perméabilité magnétique relative du milieu matériel.

Dans les milieux paramagnétiques, comme l'air et l'aluminium, μ_r est voisin de 1. En revanche, dans certains milieux dits ferromagnétiques, μ_r peut être de l'ordre de 10⁶. La perméabilité est alors non seulement fonction de H mais aussi de la température et de l'histoire du milieu.

Autour d'une cuve à électrolyse, on trouve un caisson en acier de quelques centimètres d'épaisseur qui possède des propriétés ferromagnétiques. Ce caisson joue un rôle d''écran magnétique' entre l'intérieur et l'extérieur de la cuve. La prise en compte de cet aspect est donc nécessaire à une bonne évaluation de l'influence des conducteurs extérieurs.

4 Enjeux industriels et modélisation

Nous avons montré dans ce chapitre que l'amélioration des rendements d'une cuve à électrolyse passe en grande partie par une meilleure connaissance des champs thermiques (phénomènes de solidification, pertes d'énergie calorifique, effet sur les réactions chimiques) et du champ magnétique (problème de stabilité dynamique).

La tendance, depuis la mise au point du procédé Hall-Héroult, est d'augmenter la taille et l'intensité électrique des cuves. En augmentant les dimensions d'une cuve, on diminue en effet le rapport entre sa surface et son volume. Or, les pertes calorifiques sont fonctions de la surface tandis que la consommation énergétique est fonction du volume. L'augmentation de la taille se traduit donc par une augmentation du rendement énergétique. L'intensité du courant utilisé est passée de 50 kA en 1940 à 235 kA en 1981. De nos jours, l'intensité de certaines séries dépasse 300 kA. Quand le rendement Faraday est de 100%, une cuve de 50 kA produit 400 kg d'aluminium par jour, tandis qu'une cuve de 300 kA en produit 2,4 tonnes. En augmentant l'intensité du courant, on diminue donc l'investissement par tonne d'aluminium produit.

En contrepartie, l'augmentation de l'intensité électrique se traduit par une augmentation du champ magnétique. Pour assurer la stabilité des cuves, il est donc de plus en plus crucial de bien contrôler le champ magnétique et son influence sur la dynamique des fluides. Les mesures dans le bain et le métal fondu étant difficiles et les expérimentations sur prototype extrèmement coûteuses, on comprend tout l'intérêt des modèles mathématiques pour la mise au point des prochaines générations de cuve.

Nous terminons ce chapitre en donnant quelques points d'entrée dans l'abondante bibliographie se rapportant à la modélisation de l'électrolyse de l'aluminium.

- magnétohydrodynamique : de nombreux modèles ont été proposés pour mieux comprendre les actions du champ magnétique sur l'interface libre. L'essentiel de ces études sont du type "stabilité linéaire". Des hypothèses simplificatrices sont en général effectuées sur les non linéarités (par exemple le terme $u \times B$ de la loi d'Ohm n'est parfois pas pris en compte), sur la modélisation de la viscosité (la diffusion $-\eta \Delta u$ est parfois remplaçée par $-\eta u$), sur la géométrie du problème (dans certains travaux, la cuve est supposée infinie dans une ou deux directions). On consultera J. Descloux, M. Flueck, M.V. Romerio [DR, DFR1, DFR2], R. Moreau *et al.* [ME, MZ, PM], A.D. Sneyd [Sne1, Sne2].
- solidification : Sur les aspects de modélisation de la solidification du

bain, indiquons les travaux de A. Bermudez, M.C. Muñiz, P. Quintela [BMQ1, BMQ2] ainsi que J.L. Desbiolles, J.J. Droux, J. Rappaz, M. Rappaz [DDRR].

ferromagnétisme : prendre en compte l'aimantation du caisson ferromagnétique dans des simulations numériques est un problème difficile.
 La perméabilité magnétique subit en effet un saut de 6 ordres de grandeur sur une épaisseur de quelques centimètres, alors que la longueur de la cuve est de l'ordre de 10 mètres. Signalons, sur ces questions, l'existence de modèles asymptotiques proposés par J. Descloux, M. Flueck, M.V. Romerio [DFR3] et, dans un autre contexte, F. Rogier [Rog].

Pour finir, nous citons un extrait de la conclusion de K. Grjotheim et H. Kvande [GK] sur l'avenir des cuves à électrolyse :

"Can we continue to improve? Undoubtedly, the answer is yes! (...) Electromagnetics will certainly continue to be of decisive influence on the metal pad surface and velocities. Mathematical models will be of primary importance in this area, as well as for calculations of the heat balance of the cells."

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Partie II

Etudes mathématiques

Chapitre 2

Existence of solution for a density-dependent magnetohydrodynamics equation

Le travail présenté dans ce chapitre a été effectué en collaboration avec Claude Le Bris. Il est paru dans Advances in Differential Equations en Mai 1997.

1 Introduction

In this work, we prove the existence of a weak solution for the transient incompressible density-dependent Navier-Stokes equations coupled with the Maxwell's system where we neglect the so-called displacement currents (namely the term $\partial_t(\epsilon E)$ in the Maxwell-Ampère equation $-\partial_t(\epsilon E) + \operatorname{curl} \frac{B}{\mu} = j$) and also coupled with Ohm's law in a rather complete form $j = \sigma(E + u \times B)$. The mathematical model we shall deal hereafter is therefore the following system, that we write here somewhat formally but that will be made precise in the next section :

$$\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div}\left(\rho u\right) = 0, \qquad (1.1)$$

$$\partial_t(\rho u) + \operatorname{div}(\rho u \otimes u) - \operatorname{div}(2\eta d(u)) + \nabla p = \rho f + \operatorname{curl} B \times B, (1.2)$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0, \tag{1.3}$$

$$\partial_t B + \operatorname{curl}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl}B\right) = \operatorname{curl}\left(u \times B\right),$$
 (1.4)

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0, \tag{1.5}$$

together with some *ad hoc* boundary conditions and initial data (see below). The unknowns are the density ρ , the velocity u, the magnetic field B, the

pressure p. We denote by $d(u) = \frac{1}{2}(\nabla u + \nabla u^T)$ the shear rate tensor, f a given exterior body force, σ the electrical conductivity of the fluid and η its viscosity, both conductivity and viscosity being functions of the density $\sigma = \sigma(\rho), \eta = \eta(\rho)$. In the sequel, we shall refer to this system by "the density-dependent MHD equations".

The density-dependent MHD equations describe in particular the motion of several conducting incompressible immiscible fluids (without surface tension) in presence of a magnetic field.

From a physical viewpoint, the assumption on the displacement currents is valid as soon as the materials are sufficiently conducting (see R. Moreau [70] for example). This occurs in particular in molten metals. From a mathematical viewpoint, this hypothesis makes the problem easier since it transforms the hyperbolic Maxwell's system into a parabolic equation.

Many works have already been devoted to the study of MHD systems for one fluid with constant density. We now give a brief overview on those we are aware of.

Existence and uniqueness results are established by G. Duvaut and J.-L. Lions in [30] for the case of the time-dependent MHD equations (without displacement current) posed on a simply-connected bounded domain in the framework of Bingham fluids. These results are completed by M. Sermange and R. Temam in [83] for classical Newtonian fluids. They show that the classical properties of the Navier-Stokes equations can be extended to the MHD system. More precisely, they prove in the bidimensional case the existence and the uniqueness of a global weak solution which is strong for regular data. When the space dimension is three, they prove that a global weak solution exists and that for more regular data, a strong solution exists and is unique for small times. At last, they study the large time behaviour and the Haussdorf dimension of a functional invariant set. Some of these results are also presented by R. Temam in [95] and by J.-M. Ghidaglia in [45].

The stationary MHD equations are treated by M.D. Gunzburger, A.J. Meir and J.S. Peterson in [50]. They prove the existence of a solution and its uniqueness in particular cases. Nonhomogeneous boundary conditions for u and B are used in this work and the authors propose two types of boundary conditions for the electromagnetic field (see the next section for more details). Lastly, a complete numerical analysis by the finite element method is presented. They prove in particular that any finite element spaces of $H^1(\Omega)$ is relevant to approximate the magnetic field as soon as a traditional pair of spaces (say Q2/discontinuous P1 for instance) satisfying the Ladyzenskaia-Babuska-Brezzi inf-sup condition is used for the velocity and the pressure.

The case of multiply-connected bounded sets is studied by J.-M. Domingez de la Rasilla in [28] for the stationary equation and by K. Kerieff in the time-dependent problem [58]. A numerical analysis by the finite element method is also proposed in [28].

E. Sanchez-Palancia has treated in [80] and [81] an MHD problem in an exterior domain both in the stationary and the time-dependent cases (without displacement currents).

J. Rappaz and R. Touzani have studied the MHD equations in a particular bidimensional non connected domain which occurs in industrial applications such as electromagnetic casting. They establish existence results in [77] (summarized in [76]) and give a numerical analysis of the problem in [78].

In all the above studies, the density of the fluid is supposed to be constant. Here, we are interested in fluids with nonhomogeneous density (which covers the case of several fluids with different constant densities) and we intend to extend to the coupled case the results known so far on the density-dependent Navier-Stokes equations. Let us now recall these results.

Global existence and regularity results have been established by S.N. Antontsev, A.V. Kazhikov and A.V. Monakhov in [3] in the bidimensional case. They suppose that the viscosity is constant in the whole domain and that the initial density is bounded from below by a positive constant.

A. Nouri and F. Poupaud consider in [71] the transport equation for both the density and the viscosity and they use the concept of renormalized solutions of R.J. DiPerna and P.-L. Lions. This allows them to prove the existence of a global weak solution for several fluids with various viscosities and various densities bounded from below by a positive constant.

But to date, the most complete study of the density-dependent Navier-Stokes equations is due to P.-L. Lions in [65] and our study is largely inspired by his work. In this approach, the viscosity is a function of the density. The initial density is assumed to be nonnegative, but not necessarily bounded from below by a positive constant, which also allows one to consider free surface problems. The main result proved in [65] in this setting is the global existence of a weak solution. Moreover, as long as a strong solution exists, then any weak solution is equal to it (see [65] and also B. Desjardins [26] for a proof of existence of a strong solution under particular assumptions).

The present work is organized as follows. We recall in Section 2 the density-dependent MHD equations along with the definition of various functions spaces. The initial and boundary conditions are also detailed as well as convenient hypotheses on the data. Section 3 will be devoted to the proof of the existence theorem, which basically follows the same pattern as the proof for the uncoupled case in [65]. We shall explain there the main mathematical difficulties raised by our problem. In a first step we establish existence, uniqueness and regularity results for a linear problem. We use these results in a second step in order to prove by a fixed point argument the existence of a smooth solution for a regularized MHD problem. Finally, in a third step, a fundamental compactness theorem proved in [65] allows us to pass to the limit in the regularized problem, which concludes the proof.

Some interesting connected questions are not treated here. It must be first mentioned that various several other MHD models may be considered. Let us just give three of them.

We could consider a fully static model consisting in a coupling between the steady-state Navier-Stokes equations and the stationary Maxwell's system. This is a difficult problem since existence questions related to the density-dependent stationary Navier-Stokes equations are still open even in the absence of electromagnetism, and it is not clear why we may hope to have more compactness in the coupled case.

Another possible model which raises serious mathematical difficulties is the coupling between the time-dependent Navier-Stokes equations and the complete Maxwell's system (including displacement currents). Due to the hyperbolic nature of the Maxwell equations this is a problem that remains open today even in the case of one homogeneous fluid.

Finally, a model which is to some extent easier to deal with (at least in the case of "small" initial data) but that exhibits other kinds of mathematical difficulties than the ones we face here, consists in a coupling between the time-dependent Navier-Stokes equations and the stationary Maxwell's system (see [44] or Chapter 3).

Let us also notice that other density-dependent problems could be considered with the same approach : for example the Boussinesq equations presented for one homogeneous fluid by C. Bernardi, B. Métivet and B. Pernaud-Thomas in [12].

2 The equations and their functional setting

2.1 The density-dependent MHD equations

Let Ω be a simply-connected, fixed bounded domain in \mathbb{R}^3 enclosed in a \mathcal{C}^{∞} boundary $\partial \Omega$. We shall denote by *n* the outward-pointing normal to Ω .

The density-dependent MHD problem we shall consider is to find two vector-valued functions, the velocity u and the magnetic field B, and two scalar functions, the density ρ and the pressure p, defined on $\Omega \times [0, T]$, such that

$$\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div}(\rho u) = 0 \quad \text{on } \Omega,$$
(2.1)

$$\partial_t(\rho u) + \operatorname{div}\left(\rho u \otimes u\right) - \operatorname{div}\left(2\eta d(u)\right) + \nabla p = \rho f + \operatorname{curl} B \times B \quad \text{on } \Omega, \ (2.2)$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0 \quad \text{on } \Omega, \tag{2.3}$$

$$\partial_t B + \operatorname{curl}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl}B\right) = \operatorname{curl}\left(u \times B\right) \quad \text{on }\Omega,$$
(2.4)

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0 \quad \text{on } \Omega. \tag{2.5}$$

We recall that $d(u) = \frac{1}{2}(\nabla u + \nabla u^T)$ is the shear rate tensor, f is a given exterior body force, σ the electrical conductivity of the fluid and η its viscosity. We assume that they are both function of ρ :

$$\sigma = \sigma(\rho)$$
 and $\eta = \eta(\rho)$.

This dependence of η and σ on ρ enables us to consider the density-dependent equations as a model of a multi-phase flow consisting of several immiscible fluids with various conductivities and viscosities.

For the convenience of the reader, let us briefly recall where these equations come from. First of all, we assume that the magnetic permeability μ is constant over the domain, and we set it to 1. The system (2.1)-(2.3) is the density dependent Navier-Stokes equation. Let us recall the Maxwell-Ampère equation where the displacement currents are neglected :

$$\operatorname{curl} B = j, \tag{2.6}$$

the Maxwell-Faraday equation :

$$\partial_t B + \operatorname{curl} E = 0, \tag{2.7}$$

and the Ohm's law :

$$j = \sigma(E + u \times B), \tag{2.8}$$

where j is the current density and E the electric field. Using (2.6), we see that the Lorentz force $j \times B$ acting on the fluid is curl $B \times B$ which explains the second term of the right-hand side of (2.2). Eliminating j and E between (2.6), (2.7) and (2.8) we obtain the first equation of (2.4). As soon as B satisfying (2.4) is obtained, we may recover E through (2.7) and a gauge condition on div E.

We require ρ and B to satisfy the initial conditions

$$\rho|_{t=0} = \rho_0 \text{ on } \Omega, \tag{2.9}$$

$$B|_{t=0} = B_0 \text{ on } \Omega.$$
 (2.10)

If ρ_0 vanishes on some part of Ω we cannot directly impose an initial condition on u. That is why the initial condition is imposed on ρu in [65]. Though we shall suppose here that ρ_0 does not vanish, we use the same approach, having in mind future possible developments of the present work :

$$\rho u|_{t=0} = m_0 \text{ on } \Omega. \tag{2.11}$$

On $\partial\Omega$, we impose the homogeneous no-slip boundary condition :

$$u|_{\partial\Omega} = 0. \tag{2.12}$$

For the sake of simplicity, we suppose that the boundary $\partial\Omega$ is fixed and perfectly conducting. Using Ohm's law (2.8) and Maxwell-Ampère equation (2.6), we deduce the boundary condition for B:

$$(B.n)|_{\partial\Omega} = 0, \tag{2.13}$$

$$(\operatorname{curl} B \times n)|_{\partial\Omega} = 0. \tag{2.14}$$

Let us notice that our arguments and results may be extended to treat the quite general case

$$(B.n)|_{\partial\Omega} = q \text{ and } (E \times n)|_{\partial\Omega} = k, \qquad (2.15)$$

with q and k arbitrarily fixed, independent of time, or even depending in a convenient way on the time.

Remark 2.1 M.D. Gunzburger and coworkers give in [50] a complete study of the general case $(q \neq 0 \text{ and } k \neq 0)$ for the stationary MHD equations (with ρ constant) and propose another set of electromagnetic boundary condition, namely :

$$(B \times n)|_{\partial\Omega} = q \text{ and } (E.n)|_{\partial\Omega} = k.$$

2.2 Function spaces

For $m \geq 0$, we denote as usual by $H^m(\Omega)$ the Sobolev space

$$H^{m}(\Omega) = \{ u \in L^{2}(\Omega); D^{\gamma}u \in L^{2}(\Omega), \forall \gamma, |\gamma| \leq m \}$$

where $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3)$ is a multi-index and $|\gamma| = \gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \gamma_3$. The norm associated with $H^m(\Omega)$ that we will use is :

$$||u||_{H^{m}(\Omega)} = \left(\sum_{|\gamma|=0}^{m} ||D^{\gamma}u||_{L^{2}(\Omega)}^{2}\right)^{1/2}$$

As usual $H_0^1(\Omega)$ is the subspace of $H^1(\Omega)$ consisting of functions vanishing on $\partial\Omega$. For any space X, we shall denote $(X)^3$ by \mathbb{X} (e.g. $(L^2(\Omega))^3$ by $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$, $(H^m(\Omega))^3$ by $\mathbb{H}^m(\Omega),...)$.

Let T > 0 and let X be a Banach space. $L^p(0,T;X)$, $1 \le p \le \infty$ is the space of classes of L^p functions from [0,T] into X. We recall that this is a Banach space for the norm

$$\left(\int_0^T ||u(t)||_X^p \, dt\right)^{1/p} \text{ if } 1 \le p < \infty, \quad \text{ess } \sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||u(t)||_X \text{ if } p = \infty.$$

We denote by $\mathcal{C}_c^{\infty}(\Omega)$ (resp. $\mathcal{C}_c^{\infty}(\overline{\Omega})$) the space of real functions infinitely differentiable with a compact support in Ω (resp. $\overline{\Omega}$). We introduce the spaces

$$\mathcal{V} = \{ v \in (\mathcal{C}_c^{\infty}(\Omega))^3, \operatorname{div} v = 0 \},\$$

$$V = \{ v \in \mathbb{H}_0^1(\Omega), \operatorname{div} v = 0 \},$$
$$\mathcal{W} = \{ C \in (\mathcal{C}_c^\infty(\overline{\Omega}))^3, \operatorname{div} C = 0, C.n|_{\partial\Omega} = 0 \},$$
$$W = \{ C \in \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega), \operatorname{div} C = 0, C.n|_{\partial\Omega} = 0 \},$$
$$H = \{ v \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega), \operatorname{div} v = 0, v.n|_{\partial\Omega} = 0 \}.$$

The space V (resp. W) is the closure of \mathcal{V} (resp. \mathcal{W}) in $\mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega)$ (resp. $\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)$). H is the closure of \mathcal{V} (and \mathcal{W}) in $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$. Let us remark that u.n makes sense in $H^{-1/2}(\partial\Omega)$ as soon as $u \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$ satisfies div u = 0. For $v \in V$ and $C \in W$ we denote

$$||v||_{V} = \left(\int_{\Omega} |\nabla v|^{2} dx\right)^{1/2},$$
$$||C||_{W} = \left(\int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{curl} C|^{2} dx\right)^{1/2}$$

One can establish that $||.||_V$ (resp. $||.||_W$) defines a norm (resp. W) which is equivalent to that induced by $\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)$ on V (resp. W) (cf. G. Duvaut and J.-L. Lions [31] or V. Girault and P.A. Raviart [46]). The fact that Ω is simply-connected is essential for this point.

We shall make frequent use of the following formulas of vector analysis : for all vector fields Φ and Ψ we have

$$\int_{\Omega} \operatorname{curl} \Phi.\Psi \, dx = \int_{\Omega} \Phi.\operatorname{curl} \Psi \, dx + \int_{\partial\Omega} n \times \Phi.\Psi \, dx, \qquad (2.16)$$

whenever these integrals make sense. Moreover, for all velocity fields u and densities ρ regular enough, we have

$$\operatorname{div}\left(\rho u \otimes u\right) = u \operatorname{div}\left(\rho u\right) + \rho(u \cdot \nabla)u$$

in the sense of distributions on Ω .

2.3 Regularity of the data

In the same fashion as in [65], the initial data for the hydrodynamic variables are required to have the following properties :

$$\rho_0 \in L^\infty(\Omega), \tag{2.17}$$

$$m_0 \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega), \tag{2.18}$$

$$\frac{|m_0|^2}{\rho_0} \in L^1(\Omega).$$
 (2.19)

However, while in [65] for the Navier-Stokes equations, the only assumption on the initial density is $\rho_0 \geq 0$, which in particular covers the case when there is some vacuum ($\rho_0 = 0$) on some part of the domain Ω at t = 0, we are obliged to assume here, because of the coupling with the magnetic field (see Remark 3.4), that

$$\rho_0 > 0 \quad \text{a.e. in } \Omega. \tag{2.20}$$

Moreover, we shall suppose in the sequel – unless otherwise mentioned – that

$$f \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)) \tag{2.21}$$

and that η and σ are continuous functions on $[0, +\infty)$ such that

$$0 < \eta_1 \le \eta(\xi) \le \eta_2$$
 for $\xi \in [0, \infty)$, (2.22)

$$0 < \sigma_1 \le \sigma(\xi) \le \sigma_2 \quad \text{for } \xi \in (0, \infty).$$
(2.23)

Finally, we assume that

$$B_0 \in H. \tag{2.24}$$

3 Existence of a weak solution

This section is devoted to the statement and proof of our main result. We need first

Definition 3.1 For T > 0, we shall say that (ρ, u, B) is a *weak solution* on $\Omega \times [0, T]$ of the problem (2.1)-(2.14) with the assumptions (2.17)-(2.24) if

$$\rho \in L^{\infty}(\Omega \times (0,T)) \cap \mathcal{C}(0,T;L^{p}(\Omega)), \quad \forall p \ge 1,$$
(3.1)

$$u \in L^2(0,T;V),$$
 (3.2)

$$\rho|u|^2 \in L^{\infty}(0,T;L^1(\Omega)),$$
(3.3)

$$B \in L^{2}(0,T;W) \cap L^{\infty}(0,T;H) \cap \mathcal{C}([0,T],H_{w})^{1}$$
(3.4)

and (ρ, u, B) are such that (2.1) holds in the sense of distributions in $\Omega \times (0, T)$ and

$$\iint_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} -\rho u . \partial_t \phi - \rho u \otimes u . \nabla \phi + 2\eta d(u) . d(\phi) \, dx dt =$$

$$\iint_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} (\rho f + (\operatorname{curl} B) \times B) . \phi \, dx dt + \int_{\Omega} m_0 . \phi(x,0) \, dx,$$

$$(3.5)$$

$$\int_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} -B \partial_t \phi + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{curl} B . \operatorname{curl} \phi \, dx dt = \iint_{\Omega} \operatorname{curl} (u \times B) . \phi \, dx dt$$

$$\iint_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} -B\partial_t \phi + \frac{1}{\sigma} \operatorname{curl} B.\operatorname{curl} \phi \, dx dt = \iint_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} \operatorname{curl} (u \times B).\phi \, dx dt + \int_{\Omega} B_0.\phi(x,0) \, dx,$$
(3.6)

for all $\phi \in \mathcal{C}^{\infty}_{c}(\Omega \times [0,\infty))^{3}$.

Then we have

Theorem 1

Under the regularity assumptions on the data (2.17)-(2.24), there exists a weak solution (ρ, u, B) of the density dependent MHD equations (2.1)-(2.5), with initial conditions (2.9)-(2.11) and boundary conditions (2.12)-(2.14), satisfying (3.1)-(3.4).

Furthermore,

$$\max\{x \in \Omega/\alpha \le \rho(x,t) \le \beta\}$$

is independent of $t \ge 0$ for all $0 < \alpha \le \beta < \infty.$ (3.7)

Remark 3.1 Let us note that initial conditions (2.9) and (2.10) make sense in view of the assumption of continuity made on ρ and B in Definition 3.1. But we did not assume any continuity on ρu and therefore, the sense of the initial condition (2.11) is not clear. Roughly speaking, ρu converges to m_0 up to a "gradient-like" distribution when $t \to 0$. We refer to [65] for a precise explanation of this technical point.

Nevertheless, if we suppose that $0 < \rho_1 \leq \rho_0(x)$ a.e in Ω (instead of (2.20)) and if $\frac{m_0}{\rho_0}$ is divergence free, then we can prove that $u \in \mathcal{C}([0,T], H_w)$ (like in R. Temam [94]), which gives sense to (2.11).

Remark 3.2 In the case of a multi-phase incompressible flow of K immiscible fluids we have $\rho|_{t=0} = \rho^k$ on Ω_k , k = 1, ..., K, where ρ^k is the density of the k^{th} phase and $(\Omega_k)_{k=1..K}$ is a partition of Ω . The property (3.7) means nothing but the mass conservation of each phase.

Note that this property holds of course for the density dependent Navier-Stokes equations without electromagnetism.

Remark 3.3 It is important to note that, like for the standard Navier-Stokes equation and a fortiori for the density-dependent equation with given forces treated in [65], we do not know if a weak solution is unique. We do not know either if a strong solution always exists. However, it is an extension of our work to show that the same regularity results holding under restrictive assumptions in the case of the density dependent equations, that we mentioned in the introduction, may be extended to our case.

Remark 3.4 It would be interesting to allow, like in [65], the initial density to be zero somewhere in Ω (think for instance of a conducting fluid with a free surface). Our proof could easily be extended to this case if we endowed the vacuum with a conductivity $\sigma_1 > 0$. But this hypothesis would not be very convincing from a physical viewpoint since, in the set { $\rho = 0$ }, the magnetic field B would not be a solution of the Maxwell equations in the vacuum. This is why we are obliged to suppose here that the initial density does not vanish.

Before we turn to the proof of Theorem 1, let us briefly describe our strategy of proof and say a few words on how we circumvent the mathematical difficulties raised by the problem (2.1)-(2.5). System (2.1)-(2.5) couples two equations of parabolic type with the transport equation (2.1). It is intuitively clear (and it is indeed the case) that the parabolic equation (2.4) is the easiest one to treat. This is why it is somewhat natural that the same results as in the standard density-dependent case also hold true here.

The idea to prove the existence of a solution is to introduce a regularized problem (namely (3.50)-(3.59) in Section 3.2 below) for which the solution, denote by u^{ε} , is regular enough to allow one to define (2.1) as a classical transport equation.

At the same time, the magnetic field evolves according to the parabolic equation (2.4), linear with respect to B, which provides at any time a force term in the right-hand side of (2.2).

Showing the existence of a solution to this regularized problem is the purpose of our first two steps. We linearize the problem in Subsection 3.1 and then use a fixed point argument in Subsection 3.2. Proving the theorem then amounts to passing to the limit in the regularized problem (when $\varepsilon \to 0$). In this third step, we make use of a powerful compactness result due to P.-L. Lions (Theorem 2 below).

In comparison with the case studied in [65], the new difficulty is that we have to check that the force term $\operatorname{curl} B \times B$ does not introduce any perturbation on the estimates on the velocity u and the density ρ . Moreover, we have to recover some compactness on B through the parabolic equation (2.4-a) in order to pass to the limit in the nonlinear terms $\operatorname{curl} B \times B$ (and $\operatorname{curl} (u \times B)$).

3.1 First step : a linear coupled problem

In this section, we prove a preliminary result which will be useful in section 3.2. The problem presented below is a linearized MHD system with prescribed density and will be solved by classical arguments. Let us notice that there are several possibilities to linearize the initial system (see Remark 3.5).

For ρ , w and h arbitrarily fixed such that

$$\rho \in \mathcal{C}([0,T], \mathcal{C}^k(\overline{\Omega})), \forall k \ge 0, \text{ such that } 0 < \rho_1 \le \rho(x,t) \le \rho_2, \quad (3.8)$$

$$\partial_t \rho \in L^2(0, T; \mathcal{C}^k(\overline{\Omega})), \forall k \ge 0, \tag{3.9}$$

$$w \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{L}^{\infty}(\Omega))$$
, with div $w = 0$ and $\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div}(\rho w) = 0$, (3.10)

$$h \in L^{2}(0,T; \mathbb{L}^{\infty}(\Omega) \cap \mathbb{W}^{1,3}(\Omega)) \text{ with } \operatorname{div} h = 0, \qquad (3.11)$$

the problem is to find two vector-valued functions u and B and a scalar function p defined on $\Omega \times [0, T]$, such that

$$\rho \partial_t u + \rho(w \cdot \nabla) u - \operatorname{div} \left(2\eta d(u)\right) + \nabla p = \rho f + \operatorname{curl} B \times h, \quad (3.12)$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0, \qquad (3.13)$$

$$\partial_t B + \operatorname{curl}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl}B\right) = \operatorname{curl}\left(u \times h\right),$$
 (3.14)

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0, \qquad (3.15)$$

with

$$u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega, \tag{3.16}$$

$$B.n = 0 \text{ and } \operatorname{curl} B \times n = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega, \qquad (3.17)$$

and

$$u|_{t=0} = u_0, (3.18)$$

$$B|_{t=0} = B_0. (3.19)$$

In this subsection, we require the viscosity and the conductivity to have the following regularity properties :

 $\eta \in \mathcal{C}^{\infty}([0,\infty))$ such that $0 < \eta_1 \le \eta(\xi) \le \eta_2$, (3.20)

$$\sigma \in \mathcal{C}^{\infty}([0,\infty))$$
 such that $0 < \sigma_1 \le \sigma(\xi) \le \sigma_2$, (3.21)

and, for the moment, we only suppose that :

$$f \in L^2(0, T; \mathbb{H}^{-1}(\Omega)),$$
 (3.22)

$$u_0, B_0 \in H. \tag{3.23}$$

Although we shall use a strong solution of this problem in the sequel, it will be useful for the proof of the following proposition to define a notion of weak solution : we shall say that (u, B) is a weak solution of (3.12)-(3.19) if this pair is a solution of the problem (P) defined by

To find $u \in L^2(0,T;V)$ and $B \in L^2(0,T;W)$ satisfying the initial conditions (3.18) and (3.19) and such that

$$\int_{\Omega} \rho(\partial_t u + (w \cdot \nabla)u) \cdot v \, dx + \int_{\Omega} 2\eta d(u) \cdot d(v) \, dx = <\rho f, v> + \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{curl} B \times h \cdot v \, dx$$
(3.24)

$$\int_{\Omega} \partial_t B.C \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\sigma} \operatorname{curl} B.\operatorname{curl} C \, dx = \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{curl} \left(u \times h \right).C \, dx \qquad (3.25)$$

for all $v \in V$ and for all $C \in W$.

Let us notice that we have made use of the regularity (3.10) of w to define this problem.

Proposition 1

- 1. Under the assumptions (3.8)-(3.11) and (3.20)-(3.23), there exists a unique pair $(u, B) \in L^2(0, T; V) \times L^2(0, T; W)$ weak solution of the problem (3.12)-(3.19) and a distribution $p \in \mathcal{D}(\Omega \times (0, T))$, unique up to an additive constant, satisfying (3.12). Moreover, u and B belong to $\mathcal{C}(0, T; H)$.
- 2. If we suppose $f \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$, $u_0 \in V$ and $B_0 \in W$, we have moreover :

$$u \in L^{2}(0,T; \mathbb{H}^{2}(\Omega)) \cap \mathcal{C}(0,T;V),$$
 (3.26)

$$B \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)) \cap \mathcal{C}(0,T; W), \qquad (3.27)$$

$$\partial_t u \in L^2(0,T;H), \tag{3.28}$$

$$\partial_t B \in L^2(0,T;H), \tag{3.29}$$

$$p \in L^2(0,T;H^1(\Omega)).\diamondsuit$$
(3.30)

Proof.

1) We solve (P) by the Faedo-Galerkin method : since V (resp. W) are separable there exists a sequence of linearly independent elements $v_1, v_2, ..., v_n, ...$ (resp. $C_1, C_2, ..., C_n, ...$) which is total in V (resp. in W). For all n we define an approximated solution (u_n, B_n) as follows :

$$u_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i(t) v_i, \qquad (3.31)$$

$$B_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i(t) C_i, \qquad (3.32)$$

where α_i and β_i , i=1,...,n, are scalar functions defined on [0, T] solutions of

$$\begin{cases} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\int_{\Omega} \rho v_{i} \cdot v_{j} \, dx \right) \alpha_{i}' + \left(\int_{\Omega} \left(\rho(w.\nabla) v_{i} \cdot v_{j} + 2\eta d(v_{i}) \cdot d(v_{j}) \right) \, dx \right) \alpha_{i} \\ - \left(\int_{\Omega} \operatorname{curl} C_{i} \times h \cdot v_{j} \, dx \right) \beta_{i} = \langle \rho f(t), v_{j} \rangle, \forall j = 1, ..., n. \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\int_{\Omega} C_{i} \cdot C_{j} \, dx \right) \beta_{i}' + \left(\int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\sigma} \operatorname{curl} C_{i} \cdot \operatorname{curl} C_{j} \, dx \right) \beta_{i} \\ - \left(\int_{\Omega} \operatorname{curl} \left(v_{i} \times h \right) \cdot C_{j} \, dx \right) \alpha_{i} = 0, \forall j = 1, ..., n. \end{cases}$$

$$(3.33)$$

with for i = 1, ..., n :

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_i(0) = \alpha_{i0} \\ \beta_i(0) = \beta_{i0}. \end{cases}$$
(3.34)

 $(\alpha_{i0})_{i=1..n}$ (resp. $(\beta_{i0})_{i=1..n}$) are the coordinates of the orthogonal projection in H of u_0 (resp. B_0) on the space spanned by $v_1, ..., v_n$ (resp. $C_1, ..., C_n$). The matrix $(\int_{\Omega} \rho v_i v_j dx)_{i,j=1..n}$ (resp. $(\int_{\Omega} C_i C_j dx)_{i,j=1..n}$) is nonsingular since the family $(\sqrt{\rho}v_i)_{i=1..n}$ with $\rho > 0$ (resp. $(C_i)_{i=1..n}$) is free. Thus, the Cauchy-Lipschitz theorem implies that the linear differential system (3.33) with coefficients in $L^2(0,T)$ together with the initial conditions (3.34) defines uniquely the functions α_i and β_i on the whole interval [0,T]. Then, we obtain with (3.31) and (3.32)

$$u_n \in \mathcal{C}(0,T;V), B_n \in \mathcal{C}(0,T;W).$$

Moreover, with the regularity of w, h, ρ, f, η and σ coming from (3.8)-(3.11) and (3.20)-(3.23), we have :

$$u'_n \in L^2(0,T;V), B'_n \in L^2(0,T;W).$$

In view of this regularity we have :

$$\int_{\Omega} \rho \partial_t u_n . u_n \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \rho |u_n|^2 \, dx - \int_{\Omega} \partial_t \rho |u_n|^2 \, dx$$

and

$$\int_{\Omega} \partial_t B_n \cdot B_n \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} |B_n|^2 \, dx.$$

We multiply the first (resp. second) equations of (3.33) by α_i (resp. β_i) and we add them for i = 1 to n. This yields :

$$\begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}\rho|u_{n}|^{2}\,dx+\int_{\Omega}2\eta|d(u_{n})|^{2}\,dx=<\rho f, u_{n}>+\int_{\Omega}\operatorname{curl}B_{n}\times h.u_{n}\,dx\\ \frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}|B_{n}|^{2}\,dx+\int_{\Omega}\frac{1}{\sigma}|\operatorname{curl}B_{n}|^{2}\,dx=\int_{\Omega}\operatorname{curl}(u_{n}\times h).B_{n}\,dx. \end{cases}$$

$$(3.35)$$

(we have used

$$-\int_{\Omega} \partial_t \rho |u_n|^2 \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \rho w \cdot \nabla u_n \cdot u_n \, dx = -\int_{\Omega} (\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div} (\rho w)) |u_n|^2 \, dx = 0.$$

With (3.35) and (2.16), we obtain the "energy equation" :

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}\rho|u_{n}|^{2}+|B_{n}|^{2}\,dx+\int_{\Omega}2\eta|d(u_{n})|^{2}+\frac{1}{\sigma}|\mathrm{curl}\,B_{n}|^{2}\,dx=<\rho f, u_{n}>.$$

Remark 3.5 Note that the way we have linearized the terms $curl B \times B$ and $curl (u \times B)$ is especially chosen among all the different manners in which the system may be linearized, in order to easily obtain the above a priori estimates.

Let us notice that

$$\int_{\Omega} 2\eta |d(u_n)|^2 \, dx \ge \frac{\eta_1}{2} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u_n + \nabla u_n^T|^2 \, dx = \eta_1 \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u_n|^2 \, dx$$

since div $u_n = 0$. So we have :

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \rho |u_n|^2 + |B_n|^2 dx + \eta_1 \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u_n|^2 dx + \frac{2}{\sigma_2} \int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{curl} B_n|^2 dx$$
$$\leq \frac{1}{\eta_1} ||\rho||_{\mathcal{C}^1(\overline{\Omega})} ||f||_{H^{-1}(\Omega)}.$$

Using $0 < \rho_1 \leq \rho$, we deduce by Gronwall's lemma that :

 u_n is bounded in $L^2(0,T;V) \cap L^\infty(0,T;H)$,

 B_n is bounded in $L^2(0,T;W) \cap L^{\infty}(0,T;H)$.

So, there exists $u \in L^2(0,T;V) \cap L^{\infty}(0,T;H)$ such that u_n converges to u (up to the extraction of subsequences) for the weak-star topology of $L^{\infty}(0,T;H)$ and for the weak topology of $L^2(0,T;V)$. In the same way, there exists $B \in L^2(0,T;W) \cap L^{\infty}(0,T;H)$ such that B_n converges to B for the weak-star topology of $L^{\infty}(0,T;H)$ and for the weak topology of $L^2(0,T;W)$. Clearly, the pair (u, B) is a solution of (P).

Let us assume now that (u_1, B_1) and (u_2, B_2) are two solutions of (P)and let $(\tilde{u}, \tilde{B}) = (u_1 - u_2, B_1 - B_2)$. We easily check from (3.24) and (3.25) that

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} (\rho |\widetilde{u}|^2 + |\widetilde{B}|^2) \le 0.$$

Thus $(\tilde{u}, \tilde{B}) = (0, 0)$, and the uniqueness of the solution of (P) is proved.

It is classical to show that for the solution (u, B) of problem (P), there exists a distribution p such that (3.12) is satisfied for (u, B, p) in the distribution sense in $\Omega \times [0, T]$ (see e.g. R. Temam [94], [96]).

Moreover, $\partial_t u$ and $\partial_t B$ belong to $L^2(0,T; H^{-1})$ (at least). Therefore, since u and B belong to $L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^1)$, we deduce that u and B belong to $\mathcal{C}(0,T; H)$ (see R. Temam [94]).

2) The additional assumptions of regularity for f, u_0 and B_0 enable us to obtain another estimate for the approximate solution (u_n, B_n) built by the Faedo-Galerkin method.

We multiply each first equation of (3.33) by α'_i and we add them for i = 1 to n:

$$\int_{\Omega} \rho |\partial_t u_n|^2 \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \rho w. \nabla u_n. \partial_t u_n \, dx \quad + \int_{\Omega} 2\eta d(u_n). \partial_t d(u_n) \, dx = \int_{\Omega} (\rho f + \operatorname{curl} B_n \times h). \partial_t u_n \, dx$$

Thus :

$$\rho_1 \int_{\Omega} |\partial_t u_n|^2 dx + \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \eta |d(u_n)|^2 dx \le \int_{\Omega} |\partial_t \eta| |d(u_n)|^2 dx + \int_{\Omega} \rho |w| |\nabla u_n| |\partial_t u_n| + |\operatorname{curl} B_n| |h| |\partial_t u_n| + \rho |f| |\partial_t u_n| dx.$$

Hence, using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, we find

$$\frac{\rho_1}{2} \int_{\Omega} |\partial_t u_n|^2 dx + \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \eta |d(u_n)|^2 dx \leq \\
\leq \alpha_1(t) \int_{\Omega} \eta |d(u_n)|^2 dx + \beta_1(t) \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\sigma} |\operatorname{curl} B_n|^2 dx + \gamma_1(t)$$
(3.36)

with

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_1(t) &= \frac{1}{\eta_1} ||\partial_t \eta||_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)} + \frac{3\rho_2^2}{\rho_1 \eta_1} ||w||_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}(\Omega)}^2, \\ \beta_1(t) &= \frac{3\sigma_2}{2\rho_1} ||h||_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}(\Omega)}^2, \\ \gamma_1(t) &= \frac{3\rho_2^2}{2\rho_1} ||f||_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2. \end{aligned}$$

As well, we multiply the second equations of (3.33) by β_i' and we add them from i=1 to n :

$$\int_{\Omega} |\partial_t B_n|^2 \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\sigma} \operatorname{curl} B_n \cdot \partial_t \operatorname{curl} B_n \, dx = \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{curl} (u_n \times h) \cdot \partial_t B_n \, dx.$$

Thus

$$\int_{\Omega} |\partial_t B_n|^2 dx + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\sigma} |\operatorname{curl} B_n|^2 dx \leq \\ \leq \int_{\Omega} |\partial_t \left(\frac{1}{\sigma}\right) ||\operatorname{curl} B_n|^2 + |\partial_t B_n| |h| ||\nabla u_n| + |\partial_t B_n| ||\nabla h| ||u_n| dx.$$

Using again the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality and $||u||_{L^6(\Omega)} \leq c_0 ||\nabla u||_{L^2(\Omega)}$, we find :

$$\int_{\Omega} |\partial_t B_n|^2 dx + \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\sigma} |\operatorname{curl} B_n|^2 dx \le \\ \le \alpha_2(t) \int_{\Omega} \eta |d(u_n)|^2 dx + \beta_2(t) \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\sigma} |\operatorname{curl} B_n|^2 dx$$
(3.37)

with

$$\alpha_{2}(t) = \frac{4}{\eta_{1}} ||h||_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)}^{2} + \frac{4c_{0}^{2}}{\eta_{1}} ||\nabla h||_{L^{3}(\Omega)}^{2},$$

$$\beta_{2}(t) = 2\sigma_{2} ||\partial_{t}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma}\right)||_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)}.$$

Then, we add (3.36) and (3.37), which yields in particular :

$$A'(t) \le \gamma_0(t)A(t) + \gamma_1(t),$$

with

$$A(t) = \int_{\Omega} \eta |d(u_n)|^2 \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\sigma} |\operatorname{curl} B_n|^2 \, dx$$

and

$$\gamma_0(t) = \alpha_1(t) + \alpha_2(t) + \beta_1(t) + \beta_2(t)$$

The hypotheses (3.8)-(3.11) and (3.20)-(3.23) imply that $\gamma_0 \in L^1(0,T)$. Moreover $\gamma_1 \in L^1(0,T)$ since $f \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$. Therefore, using that $u_0 \in V$ and $B_0 \in W$, Gronwall's lemma implies that $\sup_{t \in [0,T]} A(t)$ is bounded, hence :

 u_n is bounded in $L^{\infty}(0,T;V)$,

 B_n is bounded in $L^{\infty}(0,T;W)$.

We deduce by integrating (3.36) and (3.37) that :

- $\partial_t u_n$ is bounded in $L^2(0,T;H)$,
- $\partial_t B_n$ is bounded in $L^2(0,T;H)$.

By a passage to the limit, these last two properties show that :

$$\partial_t u \in L^2(0,T;H), \tag{3.38}$$

$$\partial_t B \in L^2(0,T;H). \tag{3.39}$$

Let us now prove (3.26) and (3.27). We have

$$-\operatorname{div}\left(2\eta d(u)\right) + \nabla p = \rho f - \rho \partial_t u - \rho w \cdot \nabla u + \operatorname{curl} B \times h,$$

which we write

$$-\bigtriangleup u + \nabla \tilde{p} = \phi$$

with

$$\tilde{p} = \frac{p}{\eta}$$

and

$$\phi = \frac{1}{\eta} \left(\rho f + 2\nabla \eta . d(u) - \rho \partial_t u - \rho w . \nabla u + \operatorname{curl} B \times h - p \frac{\nabla \eta}{\eta^2} \right).$$

Thus we have

$$\begin{cases} -\Delta u + \nabla \tilde{p} &= \phi \quad \text{on } \Omega \\ \text{div } u &= 0 \quad \text{on } \Omega \\ u &= 0 \quad \text{on } \partial \Omega \end{cases}$$

With the above assumptions on the data and (3.38) we have $\phi \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$. Therefore, by classical regularity results on the Stokes problem (see R. Temam [94] for instance) we have :

$$u \in L^{2}(0, T; \mathbb{H}^{2}(\Omega)),$$
 (3.40)
 $p \in L^{2}(0, T; H^{1}(\Omega)).$

As well, we have :

$$\operatorname{curl}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl}B\right) = -\partial_t B + \operatorname{curl}\left(u \times h\right)$$

which leads to

$$\begin{cases} -\Delta B = \psi & \text{on } \Omega \\ B.n = 0 & \text{on } \partial \Omega \\ \text{curl} B \times n = 0 & \text{on } \partial \Omega \end{cases}$$
(3.41)

with

$$\psi = \sigma \left(-\nabla \left(\frac{1}{\sigma} \right) \times \operatorname{curl} B - \partial_t B + h \cdot \nabla u - u \cdot \nabla h \right)$$

The assumptions on the data and (3.39) give $\psi \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$. Then, we use a regularity result due to V. Georgescu [40] (see also B. Saramito [82], Proposition 2.1, p. 40) on boundary problems of the type (3.41) which implies that :

$$B \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)). \tag{3.42}$$

Finally, (3.38) and (3.40) together imply that

$$u \in \mathcal{C}(0,T;V),$$

while (3.39) and (3.42) imply likewise that

$$B \in \mathcal{C}(0,T;W).$$

3.2 Second step : an approximated nonlinear problem

In this section, we solve a regularized MHD problem by using the Schauder fixed point theorem and the results of step 1.

3.2.1 Regularization

Let $u \in L^2(0,T;V)$, we define $r_{\varepsilon}(u)$ as in [65]. Let us recall that $r_{\varepsilon}(u) \in L^2(0,T; \mathcal{C}^{\infty}(\Omega)^3)$, div $r_{\varepsilon}(u) = 0$ and $r_{\varepsilon}(u)$ vanishes near $\partial \Omega$. Moreover we have :

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} r_{\varepsilon}(u) = u \quad \text{in } \mathbb{L}^{p}(\Omega) \quad (1 \le p < \infty)$$
(3.43)

and let us note that $r_{\varepsilon}(u) \in \mathbb{L}^{\infty}(\Omega)$.

For $B \in L^2(0,T;W)$, we build a regularization $s_{\varepsilon}(B)$ as follows : we extend B to \mathbb{R}^3 by 0. We next define $s_{\varepsilon}(B) = B * \omega_{\varepsilon}$ (ω_{ε} is a regularizing kernel). Let us notice that $s_{\varepsilon}(B) \in L^2(0,T; \mathcal{C}^{\infty}(\Omega))$ and div $s_{\varepsilon}(B) = 0$ (since B.n = 0 on $\partial\Omega$) but $s_{\varepsilon}(B).n \neq 0$ on $\partial\Omega$. We have in particular :

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} s_{\varepsilon}(B) = B \quad \text{in } \mathbb{L}^{p}(\Omega) \quad (1 \le p < \infty)$$
(3.44)

We set $f_{\varepsilon} = (f \ \mathbb{1}_{(d > 2\varepsilon)}) * \omega_{\varepsilon}$ where $d = \operatorname{dist}(x, \partial \Omega)$.

Without loss of generality, we may assume that $\eta(\xi)$ is constant for ξ large enough (since ρ remains in $[0, ||\rho_0||_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)}]$). We denote by $\eta^{\varepsilon} \in \mathcal{C}^{\infty}([0, \infty))$ a function bounded away from 0, and such that $\sup_{[0,\infty)} |\eta^{\varepsilon} - \eta| \leq \varepsilon$. Moreover, $\eta^{\varepsilon}(\xi)$ is supposed to be constant for ξ large enough. Then, we define $\eta_{\varepsilon} = \overline{\eta}(\rho) * \omega_{\varepsilon}|_{\Omega}$ with $\overline{\eta}(\rho) = \eta^{\varepsilon}(\rho)$ in Ω and = 1 in Ω^{c} .

We define σ_{ε} from σ like η_{ε} from η .

The initial data m_0 and ρ_0 are regularized like in [65]. Let us just recall that

$$\varepsilon \le \rho_0^\varepsilon \le \rho_2, \tag{3.45}$$

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \rho_0^{\varepsilon} = \rho_0 \quad \text{in } L^p(\Omega) \quad (1 \le p < \infty), \tag{3.46}$$

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} m_0^{\varepsilon} = m_0 \quad \text{ in } \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega), \quad \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{m_0^{\varepsilon}}{\sqrt{\rho_0^{\varepsilon}}} = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{\rho_0}} \quad \text{ in } \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega).$$
(3.47)

Moreover, we have the following decomposition

$$m_0^\varepsilon = \rho_0^\varepsilon u_0^\varepsilon + \nabla q_0^\varepsilon \tag{3.48}$$

where $u_0^{\varepsilon} \in \mathcal{C}_0^{\infty}(\Omega)$ and div $u_0^{\varepsilon} = 0$ in Ω (see [65]).

At last, $B_0 \in H$ is regularized as follows : we extend B_0 on \mathbb{R}^3 by 0 and we define $B_0^{\varepsilon} = (B_0 \ 1_{(d>2\varepsilon)}) * \omega_{\varepsilon}$. Note that B_0 vanishes near $\partial\Omega$ and that we have :

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} B_0^{\varepsilon} = B_0 \quad \text{ in } \mathbb{L}^p(\Omega) \quad (1 \le p < \infty).$$
(3.49)

3.2.2 Approximated problem

Our goal is to solve the following problem :

$$\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div}\left(r_{\varepsilon}(u)\rho\right) = 0,$$
(3.50)

$$\partial_t(\rho u) + \operatorname{div}\left(\rho r_\varepsilon(u) \otimes u\right) - \operatorname{div}\left(2\eta_\varepsilon d(u)\right) + \nabla p = \rho f_\varepsilon + \operatorname{curl} B \times s_\varepsilon(B), \quad (3.51)$$

$$\partial_t B + \operatorname{curl}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_{\varepsilon}}\operatorname{curl}B\right) = \operatorname{curl}\left(u \times s_{\varepsilon}(B)\right),\tag{3.52}$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0, \tag{3.53}$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0, \tag{3.54}$$

all equations being on Ω , with the boundary conditions

$$u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega,$$
 (3.55)

$$B.n = 0 \text{ and } \operatorname{curl} B \times n = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega, \qquad (3.56)$$

and the initial conditions

$$\rho|_{t=0} = \rho_0^{\varepsilon}, \tag{3.57}$$

$$u|_{t=0} = u_0^{\varepsilon}, (3.58)$$

$$B|_{t=0} = B_0^{\varepsilon}.$$
 (3.59)

Proposition 2

The above regularized problem (3.50)-(3.59) has a solution $(\rho, u, B) \in \mathcal{C}^{\infty}(\overline{\Omega} \times [0, +\infty))^3 \diamondsuit$

Proof.

1) First, we prove by a fixed point argument that the regularized problem has a solution in $\mathcal{C}(\overline{\Omega} \times [0,T]) \times L^2(0,T;V) \times L^2(0,T;W)$.

Let us consider the convex set C_{ε} in $\mathcal{C}(\overline{\Omega} \times [0,T]) \times L^2(0,T;V) \times L^2(0,T;W)$ defined by

$$C_{\varepsilon} = \{ (\overline{\rho}, \overline{u}, \overline{B}) \in \mathcal{C}(\overline{\Omega} \times [0, T]) \times L^{2}(0, T; V) \times L^{2}(0, T; W), \text{ such that} \\ \varepsilon \leq \overline{\rho} \leq \rho_{2} \text{ in } \overline{\Omega} \times [0, T], ||\overline{u}||_{L^{2}(0, T; V)} \leq R_{0}, ||\overline{B}||_{L^{2}(0, T; W)} \leq R_{0} \}$$

where R_0 is a constant to be determined.

For $(\overline{\rho}, \overline{u}, \overline{B}) \in C_{\varepsilon}$ we define $F(\overline{\rho}, \overline{u}, \overline{B}) = (\rho, u, B)$ as follows : first of all, we solve

$$\begin{cases} \partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div}\left(\rho r_{\varepsilon}(\overline{u})\right) = 0 & \text{in } \Omega \times (0, T), \\ \rho|_{t=0} = \rho_0^{\varepsilon} & \text{in } \Omega. \end{cases}$$
(3.60)

This is a classical transport equation since, by construction, $r_{\varepsilon}(\overline{u})$ is regular, divergence free and vanishes near $\partial \Omega$. Thus ρ is given by

$$\rho(x,t) = \rho_0^{\varepsilon}(X(0;x,t)), \quad \forall (x,t) \in \overline{\Omega} \times [0,T]$$

where X is the solution of the ordinary differential equation

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dX}{ds} = r_{\varepsilon}(\overline{u})(X(s;x,t),s) \\ X(t;x,t) = x. \end{cases}$$

We deduce from (3.45) that $\varepsilon \leq \rho \leq \rho_2$ in $\overline{\Omega} \times [0,T]$. Thus $\rho \in \mathcal{C}([0,T]; \mathcal{C}^k(\overline{\Omega}))$ for all $k \geq 0$ and is bounded in this space uniformly in $(\overline{\rho}, \overline{u})$. Furthermore, we deduce from (3.60) that $\partial_t \rho$ is bounded in $L^2(0,T; \mathcal{C}^k(\overline{\Omega}))$ for all $k \geq 0$. Therefore the set of ρ (such that $(\rho, u, B) = F(\overline{\rho}, \overline{u}, \overline{B})$ for $(\overline{\rho}, \overline{u}, \overline{B}) \in C_{\varepsilon})$ is compact in $\mathcal{C}(\overline{\Omega} \times [0,T])$.

Next, we set $w = r_{\varepsilon}(\overline{u})$ and $h = s_{\varepsilon}(\overline{B})$ and we invoke Proposition 1 to define (u, B) as the unique solution of :

$$\partial_t(\rho u) + \operatorname{div}\left(\rho r_\varepsilon(\overline{u}) \otimes u\right) - \operatorname{div}\left(2\eta_\varepsilon d(u)\right) + \nabla p = \rho f_\varepsilon + \operatorname{curl} B \times s_\varepsilon(\overline{B}), \quad (3.61)$$

$$\partial_t B + \operatorname{curl}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_{\varepsilon}}\operatorname{curl}B\right) = \operatorname{curl}\left(u \times s_{\varepsilon}(\overline{B})\right),$$
(3.62)

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0, \tag{3.63}$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0, \tag{3.64}$$

with the boundary conditions (3.55)-(3.56) and the initial conditions (3.58)-(3.59). We recall that $u \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)) \cap \mathcal{C}(0,T;V)$ and $B \in L^2(0,T;\mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)) \cap \mathcal{C}(0,T;W)$ which justifies the manipulations hereafter. Now, let us choose R_0 in such a way that (ρ, u, B) is in C_{ε} : we multiply (3.61) by u and we integrate :

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}\rho|u|^{2}\,dx+\int_{\Omega}2\eta_{\varepsilon}|d(u)|^{2}\,dx=\int_{\Omega}\rho f_{\varepsilon}.u\,dx+\int_{\Omega}\operatorname{curl}B\times s_{\varepsilon}(\overline{B}).u\,dx.$$

As well we multiply (3.62) by B and we integrate :

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}|B|^{2}\,dx+\int_{\Omega}\frac{1}{\sigma_{\varepsilon}}|\operatorname{curl}B|^{2}\,dx=\int_{\Omega}\operatorname{curl}\left(u\times s_{\varepsilon}(\overline{B})\right).B\,dx.$$

We add these equations using (2.16) to obtain the energy identity :

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}\rho|u|^{2}+|B|^{2}\,dx+\int_{\Omega}2\eta_{\varepsilon}|d(u)|^{2}+\frac{1}{\sigma_{\varepsilon}}|\operatorname{curl}B|^{2}\,dx=\int_{\Omega}\rho f_{\varepsilon}.u\,dx.$$
 (3.65)

Then, the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality and $||u||_{L^2(\Omega)} \leq c(\Omega)||\nabla u||_{L^2(\Omega)}$ leads to :

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \rho |u|^2 + |B|^2 \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \frac{\eta_1}{2} |\nabla u|^2 + \frac{2}{\sigma_2} |\operatorname{curl} B|^2 \, dx \le \frac{2\rho_2 c(\Omega)^2}{\eta_1} ||f_{\varepsilon}||^2_{L^2(\Omega)}.$$

Finally, using $0 < \varepsilon \leq \rho$ we obtain by Gronwall's lemma :

$$\sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||u(t)||_{L^{2}(\Omega)} + \sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||B(t)||_{L^{2}(\Omega)} + ||u||_{L^{2}(0,T;V)} + ||B||_{L^{2}(0,T;W)} \le c_{0},$$

where c_0 is a constant which is independent of $R_0, \overline{u}, \overline{B}$. Hence, with $R_0 = c_0$, we have $F(\overline{\rho}, \overline{u}, \overline{B}) \in C_{\varepsilon}$.

In order to apply the Schauder theorem, we still have to prove that the mapping F is compact on C. Replacing w by $r_{\varepsilon}(\overline{u})$ and h by $s_{\varepsilon}(\overline{B})$ in the proof of Proposition 1, part 2, we see that :

 $\partial_t B$ and $\partial_t u$ are bounded in $L^2(0,T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$, and

B and u are bounded in $L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega))$.

We deduce that the set of u (resp. B) built above is relatively compact in $L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega))$. Since V and W are closed subsets of $\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)$, the set of u (resp. B) is relatively compact in $L^2(0,T;V)$ (resp. in $L^2(0,T;W)$). Let us recall that the set of ρ is compact in $\mathcal{C}(\overline{\Omega} \times [0,T])$. Hence the mapping F is compact on C and has a fixed point (ρ, u, B) which is a solution of (3.50)-(3.59).

2) The solution (ρ, u, B) built above satisfies $\rho \in \mathcal{C}([0, T]; \mathcal{C}^k(\overline{\Omega})),$ $u \in L^2(0, T; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)) \cap \mathcal{C}([0, T]; V)$, $B \in L^2(0, T; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)) \cap \mathcal{C}([0, T]; W),$ $\partial_t u$ and $\partial_t B \in L^2(0, T; H).$

The smoothness of $r_{\varepsilon}(u)$, $s_{\varepsilon}(B)$, u_0^{ε} and B_0^{ε} allows us to apply the same regularity arguments as in part 2 of Proposition 1 which provides more regularity on (u, B) and therefore on ρ . By bootstrapping we conclude that ρ , u and B are in $\mathcal{C}^{\infty}(\overline{\Omega} \times [0, +\infty))$.

3.3 Third step : passage to the limit

The aim of this last section is to prove Theorem 1 by passing to the limit in the above regularized problem (3.50)-(3.59). The fundamental tool is a compactness result due to P.-L. Lions that we recall now for the reader's convenience, in the case N=3 and in a slightly particular form :

Theorem 2 (P.-L. Lions, [65])

We suppose that two sequences ρ_n and u_n are given satisfying $\rho_n \in C([0,T], L^1(\Omega)), 0 \leq \rho_n \leq C$ a.e on $\Omega \times (0,T), u_n \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega)), ||u_n||_{L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega))} \leq C$ and div $u_n = 0$ (C denotes various constants independent of n). We note $\rho_{0n} = \rho_n(0)$ and we assume :

$$\partial_t \rho_n + \operatorname{div}(\rho_n u_n) = 0 \text{ in } \mathcal{D}'(\Omega \times (0,T))$$

$$\rho_{0n} \to \rho_0 \text{ in } L^1(\Omega) \text{ and } u_n \rightharpoonup u \text{ weakly in } L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)).$$

Then:

1) ρ_n converges in $\mathcal{C}([0,T], L^p(\Omega))$ for all $1 \leq p < \infty$ to the unique ρ bounded on $\Omega \times (0,T)$ solution of

$$\begin{cases} \partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div} \left(\rho u \right) = 0 \text{ in } \mathcal{D}'(\Omega \times (0,T)) \\ \rho(0) = \rho_0 \text{ in } \Omega \\ \rho \in \mathcal{C}([0,T], L^1(\Omega)) \end{cases}$$

2) We assume in addition that $\rho_n |u_n|^2$ is bounded in $L^{\infty}(0,T; L^1(\Omega))$ and that we have for some $m \geq 1$

$$| < \partial_t(\rho_n u_n), \phi > | \le C ||\phi||_{L^2(0,T;\mathbb{H}^m(\Omega))}$$

for all $\phi \in \mathcal{C}_0^{\infty}(\Omega \times (0,T))^3$ such that $\operatorname{div} \phi = 0$ on $\Omega \times (0,T)$. Then: $\sqrt{\rho_n} u_n$ converges to $\sqrt{\rho}u$ in $L^p(0,T; \mathbb{L}^r(\Omega))$ for $2 , <math>1 \le r < \frac{6p}{3p-4}$ and u_n converges to u in $L^{\theta}(0,T; \mathbb{L}^{3\theta}(\Omega))$ for $1 \le \theta < 2$ on the set $\{\rho > 0\}$.

We denote by $(\rho^{\varepsilon}, u^{\varepsilon}, B^{\varepsilon})$ the smooth approximated solution given by Proposition 2. We have from (3.50) :

$$\partial_t \rho^{\varepsilon} + \operatorname{div}\left(r_{\varepsilon}(u^{\varepsilon})\rho^{\varepsilon}\right) = 0.$$
 (3.66)

Let β_n be a function of class $\mathcal{C}^1(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$. Multiplying (3.66) by $\beta'_n(\rho)$ and using div $r_{\varepsilon}(u^{\varepsilon}) = 0$ we have

$$\partial_t \beta_n(\rho^{\varepsilon}) + r_{\varepsilon}(u^{\varepsilon}) \cdot \nabla \beta_n(\rho^{\varepsilon}) = 0.$$

We integrate this equation on $\Omega \times [0,T]$ and we use again that $r_{\varepsilon}(u^{\varepsilon})$ is divergence free and vanishes on the boundary to obtain

$$\int_{\Omega} \beta_n(\rho^{\varepsilon}(x,t)) \, dx = \int_{\Omega} \beta_n(\rho_0(x)) \, dx. \tag{3.67}$$
For $0 \leq \alpha \leq \beta < \infty$ we choose (for n large enough) $0 \leq \beta_n \leq 1$ such that $\beta_n(\xi) = 0$ if $\xi \notin [\alpha, \beta], \ \beta_n(\xi) = 1$ if $\xi \in [\alpha + 1/n, \beta - 1/n]$. Letting *n* go to $+\infty$ in (3.67) we deduce that (3.7) holds with ρ^{ε} , i.e.

$$\int_{\Omega} \chi_{[\alpha,\beta]}(\rho^{\varepsilon}(x,t)) \, dx = \int_{\Omega} \chi_{[\alpha,\beta]}(\rho_0^{\varepsilon}(x)) \, dx \tag{3.68}$$

where $\chi_{[\alpha,\beta]}(\xi) = 1$ on $[\alpha,\beta]$ and 0 elsewhere. In particular, with $\alpha = 0$ and $\beta = ||\rho_0||_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)}$ this yields to the following L^{∞} -estimate on ρ :

 $0 \le \rho^{\varepsilon} \le ||\rho_0||_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)}$

Furthermore, we have the energy identity (3.65):

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}\rho^{\varepsilon}|u^{\varepsilon}|^{2}+|B^{\varepsilon}|^{2}\,dx+\int_{\Omega}2\eta_{\varepsilon}|d(u^{\varepsilon})|^{2}+\frac{1}{\sigma_{\varepsilon}}|\operatorname{curl}B^{\varepsilon}|^{2}\,dx=\int_{\Omega}\rho^{\varepsilon}f_{\varepsilon}.u^{\varepsilon}\,dx$$

which implies (using as usual Gronwall's lemma) :

$$||u^{\varepsilon}||_{L^{2}(0,T;V)} \le c$$
 (3.69)

$$\sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||\rho^{\varepsilon}| u^{\varepsilon}|^2 ||_{L^1(\Omega)} \le c$$
(3.70)

$$\left|\left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{\sigma_{\varepsilon}}}\operatorname{curl}B^{\varepsilon}\right|\right|_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))} \le c$$
(3.71)

$$\sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||B^{\varepsilon}||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)} \le c \tag{3.72}$$

where c denotes various constants independent of ε .

In view of these estimates, and using Theorem 2, our goal is now to pass to the limit in the following weak formulation of (3.51)-(3.59):

$$\iint_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} -\rho^{\varepsilon} u^{\varepsilon} .\partial_t \phi - \rho^{\varepsilon} r_{\varepsilon}(u^{\varepsilon}) \otimes u^{\varepsilon} .\nabla \phi + 2\eta_{\varepsilon} d(u^{\varepsilon}) .d(\phi) \, dx dt = \\ \iint_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} \left(\rho^{\varepsilon} f_{\varepsilon} + (\operatorname{curl} B^{\varepsilon}) \times s_{\varepsilon}(B^{\varepsilon})\right) .\phi \, dx dt + \int_{\Omega} m_0^{\varepsilon} .\phi(x,0) \, dx,$$

$$(3.73)$$

$$\iint_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} -B^{\varepsilon} \partial_t \phi + \frac{1}{\sigma_{\varepsilon}} \operatorname{curl} B^{\varepsilon} \operatorname{curl} \phi \, dx dt = \\ \iint_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} \operatorname{curl} \left(u^{\varepsilon} \times s_{\varepsilon} (B^{\varepsilon}) \right) \cdot \phi \, dx dt + \int_{\Omega} B_0^{\varepsilon} \cdot \phi(x,0) \, dx.$$
(3.74)

Extracting subsequences if necessary and using (3.69) and (3.72), we may define u as the weak limit of u^{ε} in $L^{2}(0,T;V)$ and B as the limit of B^{ε} for the weak-star topology of $L^{\infty}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))$.

Let us remark that $0 \leq \sigma \leq \sigma_2$ and (3.71) imply that $B \in \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)$ and curl B^{ε} converges to curl B weakly in $L^2(0,T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$.

In view of (3.46) and (3.69), the first assertion of Theorem 2 implies that ρ^{ε} converges (up to the extraction of subsequences) to some $\rho \in \mathcal{C}([0,T]; L^p(\Omega))$ with $1 \leq p < \infty$ and

$$\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div}(\rho u) = 0.$$

Passing to the limit in (3.68), we deduce that for $0 \le \alpha \le \beta < \infty$

$$\int_{\Omega} \chi_{[\alpha,\beta]}(\rho(x,t)) \, dx = \int_{\Omega} \chi_{[\alpha,\beta]}(\rho_0(x)) \, dx$$

which proves (3.7).

The convergence of ρ^{ε} as $\varepsilon \to 0$ implies that

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \eta_{\varepsilon} = \eta(\rho) \quad \text{in } \mathcal{C}([0,T]; L^{p}(\Omega)) \quad \text{for } 1 \le p < \infty,$$
(3.75)

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \sigma_{\varepsilon} = \sigma(\rho) \quad \text{in } \mathcal{C}([0,T]; L^p(\Omega)) \quad \text{for } 1 \le p < \infty, \tag{3.76}$$

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \rho^{\varepsilon} f_{\varepsilon} = \rho f \quad \text{in } L^2(\Omega \times (0, T)).$$
(3.77)

Next, we remark that $r_{\varepsilon}(u^{\varepsilon})$ converges to u weakly in $L^{2}(0,T;V)$ and $s_{\varepsilon}(B^{\varepsilon})$ converges to B weakly in $L^2(0,T;W)$ (with (3.43) and (3.44)).

In order to check that we may apply the second part of Theorem 2, let us prove that for some $m \ge 1$ we have

$$| < \partial_t(\rho^{\varepsilon} u^{\varepsilon}), \phi > | \le C ||\phi||_{L^2(0,T;\mathbb{H}^m(\Omega))}, \tag{3.78}$$

for all $\phi \in \mathcal{C}_0^{\infty}(\Omega \times (0,T))^3$ such that div $\phi = 0$ on $\Omega \times (0,T)$.

First, we have

$$< \operatorname{div} (2\eta_{\varepsilon} d(u^{\varepsilon})), \phi > = |\int_{0}^{T} \int_{\Omega} 2\eta_{\varepsilon} d(u^{\varepsilon}) . \nabla \phi \, dx \, dt | \\ \leq ||2\eta_{\varepsilon} d(u^{\varepsilon})||_{L^{2}(0,T;L^{2}(\Omega))} ||\phi||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega))} \\ \leq c ||\phi||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega))},$$

and

$$<\rho^{\varepsilon}f_{\varepsilon},\phi>\leq\rho_{2}||f_{\varepsilon}||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))}||\phi||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))}\leq c||\phi||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))},$$

where c are various constants independent of ε .

Using $||\partial_i \phi_j||_{\mathbb{L}^3(\Omega)} \leq c ||\phi_j||_{\mathbb{H}^{3/2}(\Omega)}$ and (3.43) we have

$$\begin{aligned} | &< \operatorname{div} \left(\rho^{\varepsilon} r_{\varepsilon}(u^{\varepsilon}) \otimes u^{\varepsilon}\right), \phi > | = | \int_{0}^{T} \int_{\Omega} \rho^{\varepsilon} r_{\varepsilon}(u^{\varepsilon}) \otimes u^{\varepsilon} . \nabla \phi \, dx \, dt | \\ &\leq c_{1} || \rho^{\varepsilon} |r_{\varepsilon}(u^{\varepsilon})|^{2} ||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;L^{1}(\Omega))} || \sqrt{\rho^{\varepsilon}} u^{\varepsilon} ||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^{6}(\Omega))} || \phi ||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{H}^{3/2}(\Omega))} \\ &\leq c_{2} || \phi ||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{H}^{3/2}(\Omega))}. \end{aligned}$$

Finally, the inequality $||\phi||_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}(\Omega)} \leq C ||\phi||_{\mathbb{H}^{3/2+\alpha}(\Omega)}$ with $\alpha > 0$ and (3.44) lead to

$$\begin{aligned} | &< \operatorname{curl} B^{\varepsilon} \times s_{\varepsilon}(B^{\varepsilon}), \phi > | = | \int_{0}^{T} \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{curl} B^{\varepsilon} \times s_{\varepsilon}(B^{\varepsilon}).\phi \, dx \, dt | \\ &\leq c_{1} || \operatorname{curl} B^{\varepsilon} ||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))} || B^{\varepsilon} ||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))} || \phi ||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{H}^{3/2+\alpha}(\Omega))} \\ &\leq c_{2} || \phi ||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{H}^{3/2+\alpha}(\Omega))}, \end{aligned}$$

with $\alpha > 0$. Therefore (3.78) is true for any m > 3/2. Part 2 of Theorem 2 and the convergence of ρ^{ε} then imply that $\rho^{\varepsilon} u^{\varepsilon}$ converges to ρu strongly in $L^{p}(0,T; \mathbb{L}^{r}(\Omega))$ for $2 , <math>1 \leq r < \frac{6p}{3p-4}$ and u^{ε} converges to u strongly in $L^{\theta}(0,T; \mathbb{L}^{3\theta}(\Omega))$ for $1 \leq \theta < 2$.

Let us prove now that B^{ε} converges strongly to B in $L^{2}(0,T;H)$. First, we check that $\partial_{t}B^{\varepsilon}$ is bounded in $L^{4/3}(0,T;W')$. Indeed, for $\phi \in L^{4}(0,T;W)$ we have

$$<\partial_{t}B^{\varepsilon}, \phi> = \int_{0}^{T} \int_{\Omega} \left(-\frac{1}{\sigma_{\varepsilon}} \operatorname{curl} B^{\varepsilon} + u^{\varepsilon} \times s_{\varepsilon}(B^{\varepsilon}) \right) \operatorname{curl} \phi \, dx \, dt \leq \\ \leq ||\frac{1}{\sigma_{\varepsilon}} \operatorname{curl} B^{\varepsilon}||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))} ||\phi||_{L^{2}(0,T;W)} + \int_{0}^{T} ||u^{\varepsilon}||_{\mathbb{L}^{4}(\Omega)} ||s_{\varepsilon}(B^{\varepsilon})||_{\mathbb{L}^{4}(\Omega)} ||\phi||_{W} \, dt.$$

In the last term we use (3.44) and the interpolation inequality $||h||_{L^4(\Omega)} \leq ||h||_{L^6(\Omega)}^{3/4} ||h||_{L^2(\Omega)}^{1/4}$ to obtain :

$$\int_{0}^{T} ||u^{\varepsilon}||_{\mathbb{L}^{4}(\Omega)}||s_{\varepsilon}(B^{\varepsilon})||_{\mathbb{L}^{4}(\Omega)}||\phi||_{W} dt \leq c||u^{\varepsilon}||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;H)}^{1/4}||u^{\varepsilon}||_{L^{2}(0,T;V)}^{1/2}||B^{\varepsilon}||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;H)}^{1/4}||B^{\varepsilon}||_{L^{2}(0,T;W)}^{1/4}||\phi||_{L^{4}(0,T;W)}^{1/4}.$$

Therefore $\partial_t B^{\varepsilon}$ is bounded in $L^{4/3}(0,T;W')$. Moreover, we know that B^{ε} is bounded in $L^2(0,T;W)$. Thus, up to the extraction of a subsequence, B^{ε} converges strongly to B in $L^2(0,T;H)$. We deduce in particular that $s_{\varepsilon}(B^{\varepsilon})$ converges strongly to B in $L^2(0,T;H)$. Furthermore, in view of (3.72), note that B^{ε} is bounded in $L^{\infty}(0,T;H)$. Thus $B \in L^{\infty}(0,T;H)$.

In particular $\partial_t B \in L^1(0,T;W')$, thus B is almost everywhere equal to a function continuous from [0,T] into W'. Moreover, $B \in L^\infty(0,T;H)$ and $H \subset W'$ with a continuous injection, therefore, we know that B is weakly continuous from [0,T] into H (see R. Temam [94] for instance).

The weak and strong convergences obtained for B^{ε} and u^{ε} enable us to pass to the limit in the nonlinear terms

$$\iint_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} \rho^{\varepsilon} r_{\varepsilon}(u^{\varepsilon}) \otimes u^{\varepsilon} . \nabla \phi \, dx dt,$$
$$\iint_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} (\operatorname{curl} B^{\varepsilon}) \times s_{\varepsilon}(B^{\varepsilon}) . \phi \, dx dt.$$

The weak convergence of u^{ε} in $L^2(0,T;V)$ and the strong convergence of B^{ε} in $L^2(0,T;H)$ enable us to pass to the limit in

$$\iint_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} \operatorname{curl} \left(u^{\varepsilon} \times s_{\varepsilon}(B^{\varepsilon}) \right) \phi \, dx dt = \iint_{\Omega \times (0,\infty)} u^{\varepsilon} \times s_{\varepsilon}(B^{\varepsilon}) \operatorname{curl} \phi \, dx dt.$$

Furthermore, we have in view of (3.47) and (3.49):

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \int_{\Omega} m_0^{\varepsilon} \phi(x, 0) \, dx = \int_{\Omega} m_0 \phi(x, 0) \, dx,$$
$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \int_{\Omega} B_0^{\varepsilon} \phi(x, 0) \, dx = \int_{\Omega} B_0 \phi(x, 0) \, dx.$$

Therefore, passing to the limit in (3.73) and (3.74), we recover (3.5) and (3.6), which concludes the proof.

Remark 3.6 We can check arguing as in [65] that any solution built as above satisfies the energy inequalities :

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \rho |u|^2 + |B|^2 \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \eta |\nabla u + \nabla u^T|^2 + \frac{2}{\sigma} |\operatorname{curl} B|^2 \, dx \le 2 \int_{\Omega} \rho f.u \, dx,$$

and

$$\begin{split} \int_{\Omega} \rho |u|^{2} + |B|^{2} \, dx &+ \int_{0}^{t} \int_{\Omega} \eta |\nabla u + \nabla u^{T}|^{2} + \frac{2}{\sigma} |\operatorname{curl} B|^{2} \, dx \, ds \leq \\ &\leq \int_{\Omega} \frac{|m_{0}|^{2}}{\rho_{0}} + |B_{0}|^{2} \, dx + 2 \int_{0}^{t} \int_{\Omega} \rho f.u \, dx \, ds. \end{split}$$

Chapitre 3

A transient/stationary magnetohydrodynamics problem

Le contenu de ce chapitre, réalisé en collaboration avec Claude Le Bris, a donné lieu à un rapport de recherche CERMICS (numéro 98-120). Il va paraître sous forme abrégée dans Applied Mathematics Letter.

1 Introduction

This work deals with the mathematical study of a system of partial differential equations related to a magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) problem. The MHD equations we consider govern the behaviour of an homogeneous incompressible conducting viscous fluid subjected to a Lorentz force due to the presence of a magnetic field. More precisely, we study a coupling between the *transient* Navier-Stokes equations and the *stationary* Maxwell equations. This model can be considered for example in industrial situations when the magnetic phenomena are known to reach their steady state "infinitely" faster than the hydrodynamics phenomena.

Many mathematical works have been devoted to the study of MHD problems. We only present here some of them briefly and we refer to Chapter 2 (or [43]) and A.J. Meir, P.G. Schmidt [68] for some more detailed overviews.

The coupling between the transient Navier-Stokes equations and the transient Maxwell equations (without displacement current) has been studied in G. Duvaut, J.-L. Lions [30] and in M. Sermange, R. Temam [83]. Numerical methods conserving the dissipative properties of the continuum system in 2D are presented in F. Armero, J.C. Simo [4]. Less numerous works have been devoted to the fully stationnary MHD equations, namely a coupling between two elliptic partial differential equations (see for example M.D. Gunzburger, A.J. Meir, J.S. Peterson [50], J.-M. Domingez de la Rasilla [28]). Finally, let us mention an interesting alternative viewpoint which consists in considering the electrical current rather than the magnetic field as the main electromagnetic unknown (see A.J. Meir, P.G. Schmidt [67, 68]).

In the present work, the equations related to the velocity field are the transient Navier-Stokes equations whereas those related to the magnetic field are elliptic (see (2.1)-(2.8)). The difficulty is that the ellipticity of the equation for B depends on the velocity field u. Briefly speaking, if the velocity becomes too large, the system may become ill-posed.

Under restrictive assumptions upon the physical data, we can however prove that a strong solution exists and is unique at least on a time interval $[0, T^*]$ for some time T^* depending on the data (see Section 4, Theorem 3). For this purpose, we give in Section 2 a presentation of the equations and the functional spaces, and we establish in Section 3 some preliminary existence and regularity results upon the magnetic equation.

As soon as the magnetic operator is no longer invertible – which may occur if the velocity becomes too large – we show in Section 5 that we can construct two distinct solutions to the system.

This latter observation shows that the model we study here should be used only with great care in numerical simulations.

2 Equations and function spaces

2.1 The transient/stationary model

Let Ω be a simply-connected, fixed bounded domain in \mathbb{R}^3 enclosed in a \mathcal{C}^{∞} boundary Γ . We shall denote by n the outward-pointing normal to Ω . The transient/stationary problem we shall consider is the following : find two vector-valued functions, the velocity u and the magnetic field b, and a scalar function p, defined on $\Omega \times [0, T]$, such that

$$\partial_t u + u \cdot \nabla u - \eta \Delta u = f - \nabla p + \operatorname{curl} b \times b \quad \text{in } \Omega, \quad (2.1)$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0 \qquad \text{in } \Omega, \tag{2.2}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl}\left(\operatorname{curl}b\right) = \operatorname{curl}\left(u \times b\right) \quad \text{in } \Omega, \tag{2.3}$$

$$\operatorname{div} b = 0 \qquad \text{in } \Omega, \tag{2.4}$$

with the following initial and boundary conditions :

$$u = 0 \qquad \text{on } \Gamma, \tag{2.5}$$

$$b.n = q \qquad \text{on } \Gamma, \tag{2.6}$$

$$\operatorname{curl} b \times n = k \times n \quad \text{on } \Gamma, \tag{2.7}$$

$$u|_{t=0} = u_0 \quad \text{in } \Omega.$$
 (2.8)

2.2 Functional setting

For $m \geq 0$, we denote as usual by $H^m(\Omega)$ the Sobolev space

$$H^{m}(\Omega) = \{ u \in L^{2}(\Omega); D^{\gamma}u \in L^{2}(\Omega), \forall \gamma, |\gamma| \leq m \}$$

where $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3)$ is a multi-index and $|\gamma| = \gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \gamma_3$. The norm associated with $H^m(\Omega)$ that we will use is :

$$||u||_{H^m(\Omega)} = \left(\sum_{|\gamma|=0}^m ||D^{\gamma}u||_{L^2(\Omega)}^2\right)^{1/2}.$$

The subspace of $H^1(\Omega)$ consisting of functions vanishing on $\partial\Omega$ is denoted as usual by $H^1_0(\Omega)$.

We shall denote respectively $(L^p(\Omega))^3$ and $(H^m(\Omega))^3$ by $\mathbb{L}^p(\Omega)$ and $\mathbb{H}^m(\Omega)$ or, when there is no ambiguity, by \mathbb{L}^p and \mathbb{H}^m .

We shall use the Sobolev inequality : for $2 \le p \le 6$,

$$||f||_{\mathbb{L}^{p}(\Omega)} \le c_{0}||f||_{\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega)}.$$
(2.9)

Let T > 0 and let X be a Banach space. The space $L^p(0,T;X)$, $1 \le p \le \infty$ is the space of classes of L^p functions from [0,T] into X. We recall that this is a Banach space for the norm

$$\left(\int_0^T ||u(t)||_X^p \, dt\right)^{1/p} \text{ if } 1 \le p < \infty, \quad \text{ess } \sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||u(t)||_X \text{ if } p = \infty.$$

The following trace spaces will also be needed :

$$H^{1/2}(\Gamma) = \{v|_{\Gamma}, v \in H^{1}(\Omega)\},\$$
$$\mathbb{H}^{1/2}(\Gamma) = \{v|_{\Gamma}, v_{i} \in H^{1/2}(\Gamma), i = 1, ..., 3\},\$$
$$\mathbb{H}^{-1/2}(\Gamma) = (\mathbb{H}^{1/2}(\Gamma))'.$$

They are equipped with the norms

$$\begin{split} ||q||_{H^{1/2}(\Gamma)} &= \inf_{w \in H^{1}(\Omega), w|_{\Gamma} = q} ||w||_{H^{1}(\Omega)}, \\ ||g||_{\mathbb{H}^{1/2}(\Gamma)} &= \inf_{w \in \mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega), w|_{\Gamma} = g} ||w||_{\mathbb{H}^{1}}, \\ ||k||_{\mathbb{H}^{-1/2}(\Gamma)} &= \sup_{g \in \mathbb{H}^{1/2}(\Gamma), g \neq 0} \frac{\langle k, g \rangle}{||g||_{\mathbb{H}^{1/2}(\Gamma)}}. \end{split}$$

We denote by $\mathcal{C}_c^{\infty}(\Omega)$ (resp. $\mathcal{C}_c^{\infty}(\overline{\Omega})$) the space of real functions infinitely differentiable with compact support in Ω (resp. $\overline{\Omega}$). We introduce the spaces

$$\mathcal{V} = \{ v \in (\mathcal{C}_c^{\infty}(\Omega))^3, \text{div } v = 0 \},\$$

$$V = \{ v \in \mathbb{H}_0^1(\Omega), \operatorname{div} v = 0 \},$$
$$\mathcal{W} = \{ C \in (\mathcal{C}_c^{\infty}(\overline{\Omega}))^3, \operatorname{div} C = 0, C.n|_{\partial\Omega} = 0 \},$$
$$W = \{ C \in \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega), \operatorname{div} C = 0, C.n|_{\partial\Omega} = 0 \},$$
$$H = \{ v \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega), \operatorname{div} v = 0, v.n|_{\partial\Omega} = 0 \}.$$

The space V (resp. W) is the closure of \mathcal{V} (resp. \mathcal{W}) in $\mathbb{H}_0^1(\Omega)$ (resp. $\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)$). H is the closure of \mathcal{V} (and \mathcal{W}) in $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$. Let us recall that u.n makes sense in $H^{-1/2}(\partial\Omega)$ as soon as $u \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$ satisfies div u = 0. For $v \in V$ and $C \in W$ we denote

$$||v||_{V} = \left(\int_{\Omega} |\nabla v|^{2} dx\right)^{1/2},$$
$$||C||_{W} = \left(\int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{curl} C|^{2} dx\right)^{1/2}.$$

One can establish that $||.||_V$ (resp. $||.||_W$) defines a norm (resp. W) which is equivalent to that induced by $\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)$ on V (resp. W) (cf. G. Duvaut and J.-L. Lions [31]). Thus we have for $B \in W$:

$$||B||_{\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)} \le d_1 ||B||_W.$$

For $2 \leq p \leq 6$, this inequality together with the Sobolev imbedding (2.9) imply that, for $B \in W$

$$||B||_{\mathbb{L}^p(\Omega)} \le d_2 ||B||_W.$$

As well, Poincaré inequality and (2.9) imply that, for $u \in V$

$$||u||_{\mathbb{L}^p(\Omega)} \le d_3||u||_V.$$

2.3 Regularity of the data

We shall suppose in the sequel that

$$u_0 \in \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega) \cap \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)$$
, with div $u_0 = 0$, (2.10)

$$q \in \mathcal{C}(0,T; H^{3/2}(\Gamma)), \tag{2.11}$$

$$k \in \mathcal{C}(0,T; \mathbb{H}^{1/2}(\Gamma)), \qquad (2.12)$$

$$f \in L^{\infty}(0,T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)).$$
(2.13)

From a physical viewpoint, it is natural to assume that k is the trace on Γ of the gradient of the electrical potential :

$$k = \sigma \nabla \phi|_{\Gamma}. \tag{2.14}$$

3 Preliminary results

First of all, we notice that we can split the magnetic field $b(t) \in \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)$ satisfying (2.6) and (2.4) into the sum of a function $B^d(t)$ that satisfies (2.6) and a function $B(t) \in W$. Indeed, we have :

Lemma 3.1 Let $q \in \mathcal{C}(0,T; H^{k-1/2}(\Omega))$ for k = 1 or k = 2, there exist $B^d \in \mathcal{C}(0,T; \mathbb{H}^k(\Omega))$ and a constant d_4 such that

$$B^{d}.n = q$$
 on $[0,T] \times \Gamma$ and $||B^{d}||_{\mathcal{C}(0,T;\mathbb{H}^{k}(\Omega))} \le d_{4}||q||_{\mathcal{C}(0,T;H^{k-1/2}(\Omega))}$

Moreover, we can impose that

$$\operatorname{div} B^d(t) = 0$$
 and $\operatorname{curl} B^d(t) = 0$ for $t \in [0, T]$.

Proof. It suffices to define B^d as follows : $B^d(t) = \nabla \phi(t)$ where $\phi(t)$ is a solution of the Neumann problem

$$\begin{cases} -\triangle \phi &= 0 & \text{in } \Omega \\ \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial n} &= q(t) & \text{on } \Gamma. \diamondsuit \end{cases}$$

Let $B(t) = b(t) - B^{d}(t)$. We replace the original problem (2.1)-(2.8) with the following one :

$$\partial_t u + u \cdot \nabla u - \eta \Delta u = f - \nabla p + \operatorname{curl} B \times B + \operatorname{curl} B \times B^d \text{ in } \Omega (3.1)$$

div $u = 0$ in Ω , (3.2)

$$\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl}\left(\operatorname{curl}B\right) = \operatorname{curl}\left(u \times B\right) + \operatorname{curl}\left(u \times B^{d}\right) \quad \text{in } \Omega, \quad (3.3)$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0 \qquad \text{in } \Omega. \tag{3.4}$$

with the following initial and boundary conditions :

$$u = 0 \qquad \text{on } \Gamma, \tag{3.5}$$

$$B.n = 0 \qquad \text{on } \Gamma, \tag{3.6}$$

$$\operatorname{curl} B \times n = k \times n \quad \text{on } \Gamma, \tag{3.7}$$

$$u|_{t=0} = u_0 \qquad \text{in } \Omega, \tag{3.8}$$

We now proceed to establish a preliminary existence and uniqueness result for the magnetic problem and two estimates which will be needed in the next section.

We define the (non-empty) convex set

$$\mathcal{K}_{M} = \{ v \in L^{2}(0,T;V), \quad \sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||v(t)||_{V} \leq M, \\ ||v||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{H}^{2}(\Omega))} \leq M, \\ ||\partial_{t}v||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))} \leq M \}.$$

The values of the constant M and T will be fixed later. We only suppose here that

$$M < \frac{1}{d_2 d_3 \sigma}.\tag{3.9}$$

Let us note that $v \in \mathcal{K}_M$ implies $v \in \mathcal{C}(0,T;V)$. For $v \in \mathcal{K}_M$, we consider the following problem : find $B \in \mathcal{C}(0,T;W)$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl}\left(\operatorname{curl}B\right) = \operatorname{curl}\left(v \times B\right) + \operatorname{curl}\left(v \times B^{d}\right) \qquad \text{in } \Omega \times [0, T], \quad (3.10)$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0 \qquad \text{in } \Omega \times [O, T], \tag{3.11}$$

with the following boundary conditions :

$$B.n = 0 \qquad \text{on } \Gamma \times [0, T], \tag{3.12}$$

$$\operatorname{curl} B \times n = k \times n \quad \text{on } \Gamma \times [0, T].$$
 (3.13)

Proposition 3

For $v \in \mathcal{K}_M$ and M satisfying hypothesis (3.9), the problem (3.10)-(3.13) has a unique solution $B \in \mathcal{C}(0,T;W)$. Moreover, we have the following estimate :

$$\sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||B(t)||_{W} \le \frac{\alpha_1 + \beta_1 ||v||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;V)}}{1 - \gamma_1 ||v||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;V)}},$$
(3.14)

where α_1 , β_1 and γ_1 are some constants defined below. \diamondsuit

Proof.

• Existence and uniqueness. We define on $W \times W$ the bilinear form

$$a_v(C_1, C_2) = \frac{1}{\sigma} \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{curl} C_1.\operatorname{curl} C_2 \, dx - \int_{\Omega} (v(t) \times C_1).\operatorname{curl} C_2 \, dx$$

and $h_v(t) \in W'$ such that, for $C \in W$,

$$\langle h_v(t), C \rangle = \int_{\Omega} v(t) \times B^d(t). \operatorname{curl} C \, dx + \langle k(t) \times n, C \rangle_{\Gamma}$$

First, let us prove that problem (3.10)-(3.13) is equivalent to find $B \in \mathcal{C}(0,T;W)$ such that

$$a_v(B(t), C) = \langle h_v(t), C \rangle$$
 (3.15)

for all $C \in W$.

Let $B \in \mathcal{C}(0,T;W)$ which satisfies (3.15). Integrating by part, we have :

$$\int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\sigma} \operatorname{curl}\left(\operatorname{curl}B\right) - \operatorname{curl}\left(v(t) \times (B + B^d)\right). C \, dx = <\frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} (k \times n - \operatorname{curl}B \times n), C >_{\Gamma} \frac{1}{\sigma} ($$

for all $C \in W$. First we deduce that

 $< \operatorname{curl} B \times n, C >_{\Gamma} = < k(t) \times n, C >_{\Gamma}$

which yields (3.13).

Moreover, since div C = 0, there exists p such that

$$\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl}\left(\operatorname{curl}B\right) - \operatorname{curl}\left(v(t) \times (B + B^d)\right) = \nabla p.$$

The function p satisfies :

$$\begin{cases} -\Delta p &= 0 \text{ in } \Omega\\ \frac{\partial p}{\partial n} &= \frac{1}{\sigma} \operatorname{curl} \left(\operatorname{curl} B \right) . n - \operatorname{curl} \left(v(t) \times (B + B^d) \right) . n \end{cases}$$

It is straightforward to check that the normal component of $\operatorname{curl}(v \times (B+B^d))$ contains only tangential derivatives of v. Thus, using $v|_{\Gamma} = 0$, $\operatorname{curl}(v \times (B + B^d))$. n = 0.

Moreover, $(\operatorname{curl}\operatorname{curl} B).n = -\partial_{t_1}((\operatorname{curl} B \times n).t_2) - \partial_{t_2}((\operatorname{curl} B \times n).t_1)$, where ∂_{t_1} and ∂_{t_2} denote the tangential derivatives. Then, hypothesis (2.14) yields $(\operatorname{curl}\operatorname{curl} B).n = 0$.

Therefore $\frac{\partial p}{\partial n} = 0$, which proves $p = C^{st}$ and (3.10). Conversely, we easily check that a solution of (3.10)-(3.13) satisfies (3.15).

Moreover, $a_v(.,.)$ is continuous and coercive on $W \times W$. Indeed :

$$\begin{aligned} |a_{v}(C_{1}, C_{2})| &\leq \frac{1}{\sigma} ||\operatorname{curl} C_{1}||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)} ||\operatorname{curl} C_{2}||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)} \\ &+ ||v(t)||_{\mathbb{L}^{6}(\Omega)} ||C_{1}||_{\mathbb{L}^{3}(\Omega)} ||\operatorname{curl} C_{2}||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)} \\ &\leq (\frac{1}{\sigma} + d_{2}d_{3}M) ||C_{1}||_{W} ||C_{2}||_{W} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} |a_{v}(C,C)| &\geq \frac{1}{\sigma} ||\operatorname{curl} C||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}}^{2} - ||v||_{\mathbb{L}^{6}} ||C||_{\mathbb{L}^{3}} ||\operatorname{curl} C||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}} \\ &\geq (\frac{1}{\sigma} - d_{2}d_{3}||v||_{V})||C||_{W}^{2} \\ &\geq (\frac{1}{\sigma} - d_{2}d_{3}M)||C||_{W}^{2} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the Lax-Milgram Theorem implies that the variational problem (3.15) has a unique solution $B(t) \in W$.

The continuity in time of B^d and v implies that $B \in \mathcal{C}(0,T;W)$.

• Estimate in $L^{\infty}(0,T;W)$. Taking C = B(t) in (3.15), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\sigma} \int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{curl} B|^2 \, dx &= \int_{\Omega} v \times (B + B^d) . \operatorname{curl} B \, dx + \frac{1}{\sigma} < k \times n, B > . \\ &\leq ||v||_{\mathbb{L}^6} \left(||B||_{\mathbb{L}^3} + ||B^d||_{\mathbb{L}^3} \right) ||B||_W + \frac{1}{\sigma} ||k||_{\mathbb{H}^{-1/2}} ||B||_{\mathbb{H}^{1/2}} \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$|B||_{W} \le d_{2}d_{3}\sigma||v||_{V}||B||_{W} + c_{1}\sigma||v||_{V}||q||_{H^{1/2}} + d_{1}||k||_{\mathbb{H}^{-1/2}}.$$

We deduce the estimate :

$$\sup_{t\in[0,T]} ||B(t)||_{W} \le \frac{c_{1}\sigma||q||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;H^{1/2})}||v||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;V)} + d_{1}||k||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;\mathbb{H}^{-1/2})}}{(1 - d_{2}d_{3}\sigma||v||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;V)})}.$$

For simplicity, we introduce the constants

$$\begin{split} \alpha_1 &= d_1 ||k||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;\mathbb{H}^{-1/2})}, \\ \beta_1 &= c_1 \sigma ||q||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;H^{1/2})}, \\ \gamma_1 &= d_2 d_3 \sigma, \end{split}$$

which gives (3.14).

In the next section, the vector field B defined above will appear on the right hand side of the Navier-Stokes equation in the Lorentz force curl $B \times B$. We see that we need an estimate on u in $L^{\infty}(0,T; \mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega))$ in order to prove the coercivity of problem (3.10)-(3.13). Such a control on u is typically obtained with strong solutions of Navier-Stokes equations. To define strong solutions, the force term in Navier-Stokes equations has to belong to $L^{\infty}(0,T; \mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))$ (see R. Temam [94]). In this scope, the estimate on B in $L^{\infty}(0,T;W)$ is not sufficient. That is why we establish now a "better" estimate on B. First, we need the following proposition which is a straightforward extension (in the non-homogeneous case) of Proposition 2.1 of Saramito [82] (see also Lemma 2.1 and Remark 2.3 of [82]).

Proposition 4

Let *m* be a nonegative integer and $1 . Let <math>g \in \mathbb{W}^{m,p}(\Omega)$, with $\operatorname{div} g = 0$ and g.n = 0 on Γ , $k \in \mathbb{W}^{m+1-1/p,p}(\Gamma)$, $q \in \mathbb{W}^{m+2-1/p,p}(\Gamma)$.

Then, there exists a unique $B \in \mathbb{W}^{m+2,p}(\Omega)$ such that

$$\begin{cases} \operatorname{curl}(\operatorname{curl} B) &= g & \operatorname{in} \Omega, \\ \operatorname{div} B &= 0 & \operatorname{in} \Omega, \\ B.n &= q & \operatorname{on} \Gamma, \\ \operatorname{curl} B \times n &= k \times n & \operatorname{on} \Gamma. \end{cases}$$

and

$$||B||_{\mathbb{W}^{m+2,p}(\Omega)} \le c_2(||g||_{\mathbb{W}^{m,p}(\Omega)} + ||k||_{\mathbb{W}^{m+1-1/p,p}(\Gamma)} + ||q||_{W^{m+2-1/p,p}(\Gamma)}).\diamond$$

Proposition 5

Under hypothesis (3.9), the solution of problem (3.10)-(3.13) given by Proposition 3 satisfies

$$||B||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;\mathbb{W}^{1,3}(\Omega))} \leq \alpha_{2} + \gamma_{2}||v||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;V)} \frac{\alpha_{1} + \beta_{1}||v||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;V)}}{1 - \gamma_{1}||v||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;V)}} + \beta_{2}||v||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;V)}$$
(3.16)

where α_2 , β_2 and γ_2 are some constants defined below.

Proof.

Let g be defined by

$$g = \sigma \operatorname{curl} \left(v \times (B + B^d) \right) = \sigma (B \cdot \nabla v - v \cdot \nabla B + B^d \cdot \nabla v - v \cdot \nabla B^d).$$

We have div g = 0, g.n = 0 on Γ (because v = 0 on Γ and the normal component of curl $(v \times B)$ contains only tangential derivatives of v, as said above). Moreover :

$$\begin{aligned} ||g||_{\mathbb{L}^{3/2}} &\leq \sigma \left(||B||_{\mathbb{L}^{6}} + ||B^{d}||_{\mathbb{L}^{6}} \right) ||\nabla v||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}} + \sigma ||v||_{\mathbb{L}^{6}} \left(||\nabla B||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}} + ||\nabla B^{d}||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}} \right) \\ &\leq \sigma ||v||_{V} (d_{2}||B||_{W} + d_{1}||B^{d}||_{\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega)}) + \sigma d_{3}||v||_{V} (d_{1}||B||_{W} + ||B^{d}||_{\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega)}) \\ &\leq \sigma c_{3}||v||_{V} (||B||_{W} + ||q||_{H^{1/2}(\Gamma)}) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, Proposition 4 with m = 0, p = 3/2 yields

$$\begin{aligned} ||B||_{\mathbb{W}^{2,3/2}(\Omega)} &\leq c_2(||g||_{\mathbb{L}^{3/2}} + ||k||_{\mathbb{W}^{1/3,3/2}(\Gamma)} + ||q||_{W^{4/3,3/2}(\Gamma)}) \\ &\leq c_2 \left[\sigma c_3 ||v||_V (||B||_W + ||q||_{H^{1/2}(\Gamma)}) \\ &+ ||k||_{\mathbb{W}^{1/3,3/2}(\Gamma)} + ||q||_{W^{4/3,3/2}(\Gamma)} \right] \end{aligned}$$

We deduce :

$$\sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||B||_{\mathbb{W}^{2,3/2}(\Omega)} \le c_2 ||k||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;W^{1/3,3/2})} + c_4 \sigma ||v||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;V)} (\sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||B||_W + \\ + ||q||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;H^{1/2})}) + c_2 ||q||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;W^{4/3,3/2})}.$$

Finally, we use (3.14) and the Sobolev inequality

$$||f||_{\mathbb{W}^{1,3}(\Omega)} \le d_5 ||f||_{\mathbb{W}^{2,3/2}(\Omega)},$$

and we introduce some constants for ease of notation :

$$egin{aligned} lpha_2 &= c_2 d_5 (||q||_{L^\infty(0,T;W^{4/3,3/2})} + ||k||_{L^\infty(0,T;W^{1/3,3/2})}), \ eta_2 &= c_4 d_5 \sigma ||q||_{L^\infty(0,T;H^{1/2})}, \ \gamma_2 &= c_4 d_5 \sigma ||q||_{L^\infty(0,T;H^{1/2})}, \end{aligned}$$

which gives (3.16).

4 An existence and uniqueness result for small data

Let M > 0, we define

$$\Theta(M) = \alpha_0 + c_5 \left(\alpha_2 + \gamma_2 M \frac{\alpha_1 + \beta_1 M}{1 - \gamma_1 M} + \beta_2 M \right) \left(1 + \frac{\alpha_1 + \beta_1 M}{1 - \gamma_1 M} \right),$$

where $\alpha_0 = ||f||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))}$ and the constants α_i , β_i and γ_i are defined in the previous section. We also define the functions μ_1 , μ_2 and μ_3 by

$$\mu_1(M)^2 = 4 \max\left(||u_0||_V^2, \frac{2}{c_7 \eta^2} \Theta(M)^2\right), \tag{4.1}$$

$$\mu_2(M)^2 = \frac{c_8}{\eta} \left(||u_0||_V^2 + \frac{2T}{\eta} \Theta(M)^2 + \mu_1(M)^3 \right), \tag{4.2}$$

$$\mu_3(M) = \alpha_0 + c_9 \mu_2(M) + c_{10} \mu_1(M) \mu_2(M).$$
(4.3)

The constants $c_5,...,c_{10}$ appear in the following proof and do not depend on the physical data.

Theorem 3

As soon as the physical data u_0 , $1/\eta$, σ , f, q, k, are "small enough" (in a sense made precise below), there exists a time $T^* > 0$ such that the MHD problem (2.1)-(2.8) has a unique solution on $[0, T^*]$. This solution satisfies $u \in L^2(0, T^*; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)) \cap L^{\infty}(0, T^*; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega))$ and $b \in \mathcal{C}(0, T^*; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)) \cap$ $L^{\infty}(0, T^*; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega))$.

Proof.

• Existence.

In the previous Theorem, "small enough" means that the data are such that the following property holds :

There exists
$$0 < M < 1/\gamma_1$$
 such that $\mu_i(M) \le M, i = 1, 2, 3.$ (4.4)

Note that it is indeed possible to choose the physical data such that (4.4) is satisfied : a straightforward calculus shows that

$$\Theta'(0) = c_5(1+\alpha_1)(\alpha_1\gamma_2+\beta_2) + c_5\alpha_2(\alpha_1\gamma_1+\beta_1),$$

thus, q, k and σ can be set small enough such that $0 < \Theta'(0) < 1$ and therefore one can choose M > 0 small enough such that $\Theta(M) < M$. In view of definitions (4.1)-(4.3) of μ_i , i = 1, 2, 3, it is a simple matter to check by an analogous calculus that (4.4) holds as soon as u_0 , f, $1/\eta$ are small enough too.

We define the time T^* by $T^* = \min(T, 3/(4c_6 \mu_1^2(M)))$, we choose M > 0such that (4.4) holds and we define \mathcal{K}_M by

$$\mathcal{K}_{M} = \{ v \in L^{2}(0, T^{*}; V), \quad \sup_{t \in [0, T^{*}]} ||v(t)||_{V} \leq M, \\ ||v||_{L^{2}(0, T^{*}; \mathbb{H}^{2}(\Omega))} \leq M, \\ ||\partial_{t}v||_{L^{2}(0, T^{*}; \mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))} \leq M \}.$$

The set \mathcal{K}_M is clearly convex. Moreover, in view of a classical compactness result (see for instance R. Temam [94], Theorem 2.1), \mathcal{K}_M is a compact set of the Banach space $L^2(0, T^*; V)$. For $\overline{u} \in \mathcal{K}_M$, we use Proposition 3 to define B as the unique solution of

$$\begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sigma} \operatorname{curl} (\operatorname{curl} B) = \operatorname{curl} (\overline{u} \times B) + \operatorname{curl} (\overline{u} \times B^d) & \text{in } \Omega, \\ \operatorname{div} B = 0 & \operatorname{in} \Omega, \\ B.n = 0 & \operatorname{on} \Gamma, \\ \operatorname{curl} B \times n = k & \operatorname{on} \Gamma. \end{cases}$$

$$(4.5)$$

According to the estimates (3.14) and (3.16), we have

$$\begin{aligned} ||\operatorname{curl} B \times B||_{L^{\infty}(0,T^{*};\mathbb{L}^{2})} &\leq ||\operatorname{curl} B||_{L^{\infty}(0,T^{*};\mathbb{L}^{3}(\Omega))}||B||_{L^{\infty}(0,T^{*};\mathbb{L}^{6}(\Omega))} \\ &\leq c_{5}||B||_{L^{\infty}(0,T^{*};\mathbb{W}^{1,3})}||B||_{L^{\infty}(0,T^{*};W)} \\ &\leq c_{5}\left(\alpha_{2}+\gamma_{2}M\frac{\alpha_{1}+\beta_{1}M}{1-\gamma_{1}M}+\beta_{2}M\right)\left(\frac{\alpha_{1}+\beta_{1}M}{1-\gamma_{1}M}\right), \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} ||\operatorname{curl} B \times B^{d}||_{L^{\infty}(0,T^{*};\mathbb{L}^{2})} &\leq ||\operatorname{curl} B||_{L^{\infty}(0,T^{*};\mathbb{L}^{3}(\Omega))}||B^{d}||_{L^{\infty}(0,T^{*};\mathbb{L}^{6}(\Omega))} \\ &\leq c_{5}||B||_{L^{\infty}(0,T^{*};\mathbb{W}^{1,3})}||B^{d}||_{L^{\infty}(0,T^{*};\mathbb{H}^{1})} \\ &\leq c_{5}\left(\alpha_{2}+\gamma_{2}M\frac{\alpha_{1}+\beta_{1}M}{1-\gamma_{1}M}+\beta_{2}M\right). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the force term $F = f + (\operatorname{curl} B) \times (B + B^d)$ is in $L^{\infty}(0, T^*; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||F(t)||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)} &\leq ||f||_{L^{\infty}(0,T^{*};\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))} \\ &+ c_{5} \left(\alpha_{2} + \gamma_{2}M \frac{\alpha_{1} + \beta_{1}M}{1 - \gamma_{1}M} + \beta_{2}M\right) \left(1 + \frac{\alpha_{1} + \beta_{1}M}{1 - \gamma_{1}M}\right) \\ &\leq \Theta(M). \end{aligned}$$

Then, it is proved in R. Temam [94, 96] that there exists a unique solution $u \in L^2(0, T^*; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)) \cap L^{\infty}(0, T^*; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))$ to the Navier-Stokes equations

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
\partial_t u + u \cdot \nabla u - \eta \bigtriangleup u + \nabla p &= F & \text{in } \Omega, \\
\text{div } u &= 0 & \text{in } \Omega, \\
u &= 0 & \text{on } \Gamma,
\end{array}$$
(4.6)

satisfying moreover

$$\begin{split} \sup_{t \in [0,T^*]} ||u(t)||_V^2 &\leq \mu_1(M)^2 \leq M^2, \\ ||u||_{L^2(0,T^*;\mathbb{H}^2(\Omega))} &\leq \frac{c_8}{\eta} \left(||u_0||_V^2 + \frac{2}{\eta} \int_0^{T^*} ||F(t)||^2 \, dt + \mu_1(M)^3 \right) \\ &\leq \mu_2(M)^2 \leq M^2. \end{split}$$

We then deduce from the Navier-Stokes equations that

$$\begin{aligned} ||\partial_t u||_{L^2(0,T^*;L^2(\Omega))} &\leq & \eta c_9 ||u||_{L^2(0,T^*;\mathbb{H}^2(\Omega))} + c_{10} ||u||_{L^{\infty}(0,T^*;\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega))} ||u||_{L^2(0;T^*;\mathbb{H}^2(\Omega))} \\ &+ ||f||_{L^{\infty}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))} \\ &\leq & \mu_3(M) \leq M. \end{aligned}$$

We deduce that $u \in \mathcal{K}_M$. Let us check the continuity in $L^2(0,T;V)$ of $\overline{u} \longrightarrow u$. Let \overline{u}_n be a sequence that goes to \overline{u} in $L^2(0,T;V)$, it defines a sequence B_n , solution of (4.5). The force term corresponding to B_n in the Navier-Stokes equations has the required regularity to define a sequence u_n bounded in $L^2(0,T;\mathbb{H}^2(\Omega))$ and such that $\partial_t u_n$ is bounded in $L^2(0,T;\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$. The sequence u_n is therefore compact in $L^2(0,T;\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega))$. The uniqueness of the solution yields that u_n goes to u corresponding to \overline{u} .

Thus the application $\overline{u} \longrightarrow u$ maps continuously the convex compact set \mathcal{K}_M into himself. Therefore, the Schauder theorem ensures that the existence of a fixed point. This yields the existence result.

• Regularity of b.

We have just proved that $B \in \mathcal{C}(0, T^*; W)$. We show as in Proposition 5 that $B \in \mathcal{C}(0, T^*; W^{1,3}(\Omega))$ and therefore we have in particular $B \in L^{\infty}(0, T^*; \mathbb{L}^q(\Omega)), \forall q > 0$. Using for example that $B \in L^{\infty}(0, T^*; \mathbb{L}^8(\Omega))$, we easily check that the right-hand side of (4.5) belongs to $L^{\infty}(0, T^*; \mathbb{L}^{8/5}(\Omega))$. Using Proposition 4, we deduce that $B \in L^{\infty}(0, T^*; W^{2,8/5}(\Omega))$, which implies that $B \in L^{\infty}(0, T^*; \mathbb{L}^{\infty}(\Omega))$. The right-hand side of (4.5) is then in $L^{\infty}(0, T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$. Applying one more time the regularity result of Proposition 4, we finally conclude that $B \in L^{\infty}(0, T^*; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega))$. In view of the regularity of B^d , we deduce that $b \in L^{\infty}(0, T^*; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega))$.

• Uniqueness.

Let (u_1, p_1, B_1) and (u_2, p_2, B_2) two solutions of problem (3.1)-(3.8). We define $u = u_1 - u_2$, $B = B_1 - B_2$. Combining the equations satisfied by (u_1, B_1) and (u_2, B_2) , we have

$$\partial_t u + u \cdot \nabla u_1 + u_2 \cdot \nabla u - \eta \Delta u + \nabla p = \operatorname{curl} B \times B_1 + \operatorname{curl} B_2 \times B, \quad (4.7)$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl}\left(\operatorname{curl}B\right) = \operatorname{curl}\left(u \times B_{1}\right) + \operatorname{curl}\left(u_{2} \times B\right) + \operatorname{curl}\left(u \times B^{d}\right), \quad (4.8)$$

with u = 0, B.n = 0 and $\operatorname{curl} B \times n = 0$ on the boundary.

Multiplying (4.7) by u, (4.8) by B and integrating we obtain :

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} |u|^2 dx + \int_{\Omega} \eta |\nabla u|^2 dx + \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\sigma} |\operatorname{curl} B|^2 dx \le \int_{\Omega} |u.\nabla u.u_1| dx + \int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{curl} B_2 \times B.u| dx + \int_{\Omega} |u_2 \times B.\operatorname{curl} B| dx + \int_{\Omega} |u \times B^d.\operatorname{curl} B| dx.$$

$$(4.9)$$

We estimate the right-hand side of this inequality as follows :

$$\int_{\Omega} |u.\nabla u.u_1| \, dx \le C_{\varepsilon} ||u_1||^2_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}(\Omega)} ||u||^2_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} + \varepsilon ||\nabla u||^2_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)},$$

where C_{ε} and ε are some constant, with ε arbitrarily small.

$$\begin{split} \int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{curl} B_{2} \times B.u| \, dx &\leq ||\operatorname{curl} B_{2}||_{\mathbb{L}^{4}(\Omega)} ||B||_{\mathbb{L}^{4}(\Omega)} ||u||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)} \\ &\leq C_{\varepsilon} ||B_{2}||_{\mathbb{H}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2} ||u||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2} + \varepsilon ||\operatorname{curl} B||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2}, \\ \int_{\Omega} |u \times B^{d}.\operatorname{curl} B| \, dx \leq C_{\varepsilon} ||B^{d}||_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}(\Omega)}^{2} ||u||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2} + \varepsilon ||\operatorname{curl} B||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2}, \\ \int_{\Omega} |u_{2} \times B.\operatorname{curl} B| \, dx \leq C_{\varepsilon} ||u_{2}||_{\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega)}^{2} ||\operatorname{curl} B||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2} + \varepsilon ||\operatorname{curl} B||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2}. \end{split}$$

In this last inequality, we estimate $\operatorname{curl} B$ with equation (4.8) :

$$\frac{1}{\sigma} \int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{curl} B|^2 \, dx \le (||B_1||_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}} + ||B^d||_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}}) ||\operatorname{curl} B||_{\mathbb{L}^2} ||u||_{\mathbb{L}^2} + d_2 d_3 ||u_2||_{\mathbb{H}^1} ||\operatorname{curl} B||_{\mathbb{L}^2}^2$$

Using $\sup_{t \in [0,T^*]} ||u_2||_{\mathbb{H}^1} \leq M$ and the coercivity assumption $0 < M < 1/\gamma_1$ with $\gamma_1 = d_2 d_3 \sigma$, we deduce that

$$||\operatorname{curl} B||_{\mathbb{L}^2} \le \frac{\sigma}{1 - \gamma_1 M} (||B_1||_{\mathbb{L}^\infty} + ||B^d||_{\mathbb{L}^\infty})||u||_{\mathbb{L}^2}.$$
(4.10)

Thus,

$$\int_{\Omega} |u_2 \times B.\operatorname{curl} B| \, dx \le C_{\varepsilon} \left(\frac{\sigma}{1 - \gamma_1 M}\right)^2 (||B_1||_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}} + ||B^d||_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}})^2 ||u_2||_{\mathbb{H}^1}^2 ||u||_{\mathbb{L}^2}^2 + \varepsilon ||\operatorname{curl} B||_{\mathbb{L}^2}^2.$$

Gathering these inequalities, estimate (4.9) yields

1

$$\frac{d}{dt}||u||_{\mathbb{L}^2}^2 \le \phi(t)||u||_{\mathbb{L}^2}^2$$

with $\phi = C_{\varepsilon}(||u_1||^2_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}(\Omega)} + ||B_2||^2_{\mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)} + ||B^d||^2_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}(\Omega)} + \left(\frac{\sigma}{1-\gamma_1 M}\right)^2 (||B_1||_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}} + ||B^d||_{\mathbb{L}^{\infty}})^2 ||u_2||^2_{\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)})$. Note that $\phi \in L^1(0, T^*)$. Therefore, by Gronwall lemma, u = 0, and using again (4.10), B = 0. This proves the uniqueness of a strong solution (u, b) of (2.1)-(2.8).

Remark 4.1 We now sketch an alternative proof of Theorem 3. We only give the main ideas and manipulate the equations in a formal way. We suppose for the sake of simplicity that $\operatorname{curl} B \times n = 0$ on the boundary and f = 0. The MHD system we are studying may be seen as the singular limit when $\varepsilon \to 0$ of

$$\partial_t u_{\varepsilon} + u^{\varepsilon} \cdot \nabla u^{\varepsilon} - \eta \Delta u^{\varepsilon} = -\nabla p + \operatorname{curl} B^{\varepsilon} \times B^{\varepsilon} \quad in \ \Omega, \quad (4.11)$$

$$div \, u^{\varepsilon} = 0 \qquad in \ \Omega, \tag{4.12}$$

$$\varepsilon \partial_t B^{\varepsilon} + \frac{1}{\sigma} curl(curl B^{\varepsilon}) = curl(u^{\varepsilon} \times B^{\varepsilon}) \qquad in \ \Omega, \tag{4.13}$$

$$\operatorname{div} B^{\varepsilon} = 0 \qquad \operatorname{in} \Omega. \tag{4.14}$$

This system has been studied in M. Sermange, R. Temam [83] with $\varepsilon = 1$. The first energy estimate is :

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(\int_{\Omega}|u^{\varepsilon}|^{2}\,dx+\varepsilon\int_{\Omega}|B^{\varepsilon}|^{2}\,dx\right)+\int_{\Omega}\eta|\nabla u^{\varepsilon}|^{2}+\frac{1}{\sigma}|\operatorname{curl}B^{\varepsilon}|^{2}\,dx=0.$$

Unfortunately, the bound on $\partial_t B^{\varepsilon}$ is not uniform in ε which prevents us to infer any compactness on B^{ε} in order to treat the non-linear term $\operatorname{curl} B^{\varepsilon} \times B^{\varepsilon}$. We therefore argue as follows.

Derivating with respect to the time, multiplying the Maxwell equation by $\partial_t B^{\varepsilon}$ and integrating yield :

$$\begin{split} \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} |\partial_t B^{\varepsilon}|^2 \, dx &+ \frac{1}{\sigma} \int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{curl} \partial_t B^{\varepsilon}|^2 \, dx = \\ &= \int_{\Omega} \partial_t u^{\varepsilon} \times B^{\varepsilon} . \operatorname{curl} \partial_t B^{\varepsilon} + \int_{\Omega} u^{\varepsilon} \times \partial_t B^{\varepsilon} . \operatorname{curl} \partial_t B^{\varepsilon} \, dx \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{curl} \partial_t B^{\varepsilon}|^2 \, dx + C^{st} (||\partial_t u^{\varepsilon} . B^{\varepsilon}||_{\mathbb{L}^2}^2 + ||u^{\varepsilon}||_{\mathbb{L}^3}^2 ||\partial_t B^{\varepsilon}||_{\mathbb{L}^6}^2), \end{split}$$

and thus

$$\frac{\varepsilon}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}|\partial_{t}B^{\varepsilon}|^{2}\,dx + \left(\frac{1}{\sigma} - C^{st}||u^{\varepsilon}||_{V}\right)\int_{\Omega}|\operatorname{curl}\partial_{t}B^{\varepsilon}|^{2}\,dx \leq C^{st}||\nabla\partial_{t}u^{\varepsilon}||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}}^{2}||\operatorname{curl}B^{\varepsilon}||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}}^{2}$$

which shows that we have $\nabla \partial_t B^{\varepsilon}$ bounded in $L^2(0,T;\mathbb{H}^1)$ uniformly with respect to ε as soon as $||u^{\varepsilon}||_V$ is small enough. This gives some compactness on B^{ε} and thus allows us to complete this proof.

5 Remark on the non-uniqueness

It has been proven in the previous section that the MHD problem (3.1)-(3.8) has a unique solution for small data, at least on an interval $[0, T^*]$, $T^* > 0$. The idea of the proof has been to ensure the coercivity of equation (3.3) by controlling the $H^1(\Omega)$ norm of u on $[0, T^*]$. We exhibit in this section an example (due to P.-L. Lions [64]) of non-uniqueness in the case when the operator $T_u : B \to \operatorname{curl}(\operatorname{curl} B) - \operatorname{curl}(u \times B)$ is not invertible.

From now on, we assume for simplicity that k = 0, q = 0, thus we deal with the homogeneous boundary conditions on Γ :

$$\begin{array}{rcl} u &=& 0,\\ B.n &=& 0,\\ \operatorname{curl} B \times n &=& 0. \end{array}$$

Let us assume that for some t_0 and some $\tilde{u} = \tilde{u}(t_0, x)$ the operator $T_u : B \to \operatorname{curl}(\operatorname{curl} B) - \operatorname{curl}(u \times B)$ is not invertible. There exists a divergence-free field $\tilde{B} \not\equiv 0$ satisfying

$$\operatorname{curl}\left(\operatorname{curl}\tilde{B}\right) = \operatorname{curl}\left(\tilde{u} \times \tilde{B}\right).$$

Note that such a \tilde{u} is necessarilly "large enough", otherwise, $T_{\tilde{u}}$ would be coercive. If we consider the force $\tilde{f} = \tilde{u} \cdot \nabla \tilde{u} - \eta \bigtriangleup \tilde{u} - \operatorname{curl} \tilde{B} \times \tilde{B}$, then (\tilde{u}, \tilde{B}) is a (stationary) solution to

$$\begin{cases} \partial_t u + u \cdot \nabla u - \eta \Delta u + \nabla p &= \tilde{f} + \operatorname{curl} B \times B, \\ \operatorname{div} u &= 0, \\ \operatorname{curl} (\operatorname{curl} B) &= \operatorname{curl} (u \times B), \\ \operatorname{div} B &= 0. \end{cases}$$
(5.1)

Next, we define u' as the solution of

$$\begin{cases} \partial_t u + u \cdot \nabla u - \eta \Delta u + \nabla p &= \tilde{f}, \\ \operatorname{div} u &= 0. \end{cases}$$

with the "initial" condition $u'(t_0, .) = \tilde{u}(t_0, .)$.

We finally observe that (\tilde{u}, \tilde{B}) and (u', 0) are different (since $\tilde{B} \neq 0$) while they both satisfy (5.1) on $[t_0, +\infty)$.

Thus, we have two different solutions of the MHD problem with homogeneous boundary conditions.

6 Conclusion

We have proved that the MHD system (2.1)-(2.8) has a unique solution on an interval $[0, T^*]$ as soon as the physical data are regular and small enough, with $T^* > 0$ depending on the data. Note that the proof may probably be extended to the case of multifluid equations in two dimensions with constant viscosity and conductivity.

Moreover, we have shown that a solution is *not* unique if the operator $B \rightarrow \operatorname{curl} (\operatorname{curl} B) - \operatorname{curl} (u \times B)$ is not invertible. This may occur as soon as the velocity becomes too large, but it is an open question to show that the operator do *indeed* become not invertible.

The practical conclusion of this study is the following : even if the model presented here seems well-suited in some physical situations and even if it is mathematically well-posed under restrictive assumptions, it should be very carefully used in numerical simulations since it could be ill-posed as soon as the velocity becomes too large.

Chapitre 4

On the long time behaviour of the solution to the two-fluids incompressible Navier-Stokes equations

Le travail présenté dans ce chapitre a été effectué en collabaration avec Claude Le Bris. Il va paraître dans Differential and Integral Equations.

1 Introduction

We present a study of the long time behaviour of the time-dependent Navier-Stokes equations for two incompressible immiscible fluids in various settings. The main question under consideration here is the following : assume that the forces and the boundary conditions are such that for any steady state, both fluids are at rest (the velocity is zero all over the domain), then can one show that the viscous dissipation drives the system to such a steady state as time goes to infinity ? Intuitively, if for instance the only forces are due to the gravity, and if the two fluids are of different densities, it is expected that the system goes, as time goes to infinity, to the situation when the two fluids are at rest, separated by a flat interface, the heaviest fluid below this interface, and the lightest above. One of the goal of this work is to investigate in what sense this simple intuitive expectation (and observation) is satisfied mathematically. In other words, we aim at studying in what sense the Navier-Stokes equations do reproduce the physical reality on that particular point.

More mathematically, consider (u, p, ρ) a solution to

$$\partial_t(\rho u) + \operatorname{div}(\rho u \otimes u) - \Delta u = -\nabla p + \rho f_m + f_v,$$

$$\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div} (\rho u) = 0,$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0, \qquad (1.1)$$

with the no-slip boundary condition

$$u = 0 \text{ on } \partial\Omega, \tag{1.2}$$

and with the initial data

$$u(\cdot, t = 0) = u_0(\cdot), \tag{1.3}$$

and

$$\rho(\cdot, t=0) = \rho^0(\cdot) = \begin{cases} \rho_1 > 0, \text{ constant in } \Omega_1, \\ \rho_2 > 0, \text{ constant in } \Omega_2, \end{cases}$$
(1.4)

for a partition (Ω_1, Ω_2) of the domain Ω where the system (1.1) is set. We do not detail in this introduction the sense in which (u, p, ρ) is a solution to (1.1), but we will make it precise below. Possibly, we shall add to the righthand side of (1.1) a term modelling the effect of the surface tension at the interface between the two fluids. Let us assume then that the given massic forces f_m and volumic forces f_v are such that any steady-state solution of (1.1) consists of some piecewise constant density $\rho \in {\rho_1, \rho_2}$ and of the zero velocity field $u \equiv 0$. Can we say something on the behaviour of (u, ρ) for tgoing to infinity ?

1.1 Position of the problem

It is first of all to be remarked that we cannot hope to solve the question of the long time behaviour of the solution to the two-fluids Navier-Stokes equations in a very general setting, for arbitrary forces f_m and f_v , since, even for the one fluid case, this question is an extremely difficult one.

Let us briefly overview the main results known to this day on this subject.

As far as the long time behaviour of the Navier-Stokes equations (and more generally of any dissipative system of infinite size) is concerned, the main body of the theory is due to R. Temam and coworkers (see R. Temam [96, 95], and P. Constantin, C. Foias, B. Nicolaenko, R. Temam [22]). Globally speaking, the long time behaviour of these equations is finite dimensional in two dimensions without restriction and in three dimensions at least for flows which remain smooth. In fact, as will become clear in the examples below and in the whole sequel, the determination of the long time behaviour of the solutions is closely related to the existence of regular solutions for all time.

In two dimensions, the solution is regular and therefore many things are known. If the force is time independent, there exists an attractor, and its Haussdorf dimension is finite. This attractor is all the more regular as the force is (e.g. \mathcal{C}^{∞} if the force is \mathcal{C}^{∞}). In the space periodic case, it is even possible to show that there exists an inertial manifold. An upper bound on the finite dimension of the attractor is related to the Reynolds number of the problem (see e.g. A. Miranville & X. Wang [69] and references therein). Most of these results apply to the MHD system (M. Sermange, R. Temam [83]). In three dimensions, it is only known that the functional invariant sets bounded in L^2 are of finite Haussdorf dimension, but no existence of attractor (which would exist if the solutions were regular for all time) have been established to this day in the generic case.

In very particular situations, it is possible to improve these general results by proving the convergence of the flow to some stationary state. Such kind of results is in fact expected from experiment. When the body force the fluid is subjected to is large (and even if it is stationary) there are some situations where the flow remains turbulent and time dependent for long times (for instance, it tends to a time-periodic solution). But when the force is small, there are many situations where the flow converges as time goes to infinity to the state where the fluid is at rest. Let us examine now the mathematical counterpart of this experimental observation.

The first result in this spirit concerns the case of one homogeneous fluid enclosed in a fixed box and goes back to Leray. In two or three dimensions with homogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions, when there is no body force, the only steady state is the fluid at rest and the time dependent flow converges to it in H^1 as time goes to infinity. This result has in particular been extended in the following two directions : if the force f and the data (initial velocity and boundary conditions) are small enough then the flow remains regular for all time (even in three dimensions) and the speed of convergence toward the steady state can be evaluated (see C. Guillope [48], J.G Heywood [51, 52], C. Foias, J.C. Saut [35]); if the initial velocity is large but when the force is gradient-like it is possible to show that the flow becomes smooth after a finite time, then remains smooth and converges to the steady state (see J.G Heywood [52]). Some analogous results are available under convenient hypotheses in the unbounded case (see G.P. Galdi, J.G Heywood, Y. Shibata [39], W. Borchers & T. Miyakawa [16] and references therein).

Let us now leave the case of one fluid in a fixed domain and deal with the case of one fluid enclosed within a free surface or the case of two fluids. There again, most studies deal with situations when there exist regular solutions which is mostly the case when the data are small and the evolution is not far from equilibrium : let us mention here the works by V.A. Solonnikov [87, 89, 86] and by J.T Beale [7, 9]. The basic result is the convergence to the steady state as time goes to infinity. Let us also mention for the sake of completeness the work by A. Tani and N. Tanaka [93], the works in the irrotational inviscid case J.T Beale, T.Y Hou, J.S Lowengrub [8], T.Y Hou, Z.H Teng, P. Zhang [53] and also a connected work by H. Beirao da Veiga [10].

In the case we deal with here, this is therefore only under very restrictive assumptions one can hope to settle this question. All the situations we shall consider below share the same following feature : there is uniqueness of the stationary velocity field (but not necessarily of the stationary interface).

Our study is actually motivated by the examination of the question of the long time behaviour of the solution in a more complicated situation (arising in the modelling of many industrial problems of metal processing), namely the situation when the two incompressible fluids are in addition two electrically conductor fluids, confined in a bounded domain, initially disposed as two horizontal layers separated by a regular interface, and when the motion of these two fluids is governed by a system of equations consisting of the Navier-Stokes equations coupled with the Maxwell equations (namely the magnetohydrodynamic equations). The massic force term f_m in (1.1) is then only due to the gravity, while the volumic force term f_v is the Lorentz force

$$f_v = \operatorname{curl} B \times B, \tag{1.5}$$

the magnetic field B being solution to the Maxwell equations in a more or less simplified form (see Chapter 2 or [43]). This work is to be seen as a first step toward the study of this system. Many studies have already dealt with this question : see among other references J. Descloux, Y. Jaccard, M.V. Romerio [25], P. Maillard, M.V. Romerio [66]. So far as we know, most studies treat the linearized case (expansion of the solution in the neighborhood of the zero steady state solution when the initial data is a small perturbation). In view of all the difficulties of the generic case explained above, it must of course not be surprising for the reader that the somewhat practical studies we indicate here focus on this simplified linearized setting. Many cases of magnetic and electric fields are considered, in various geometries, in two or three dimensions, under various assumptions of symmetry. The emphasis is layed on the behaviour of the velocity and of the electromagnetic field, and the conclusion provided by these studies is mainly that, under convenient assumptions, the velocity goes to zero, in a more or less strong sense, while the electromagnetic field tends to some well identified limit. Unfortunately, nothing (or almost nothing) is known about the behaviour of the interface separating the two fluids (see for instance Remark 3.4 in [25]). We believe that some information on this behaviour could be useful, in particular if one has in mind questions of stability of such two-fluids systems. From a rigorous viewpoint, it is indeed not clear (and it will indeed be illustrated in the sequel) that the interface goes to some equilibrium shape if the topology for which the velocity goes to zero is too weak; moreover, if the interface does converge, one has to identify its limit. Some pathological situations have to be ruled out (see Figure 4.1). In order to investigate this question, we first go back from the sophisticated magnetohydrodynamic problem to the more basic problem of the two fluids subjected only to the gravity. The question



FIG. 4.1: Two examples of situations when the velocity goes to 0 but when the interface does not converge to the equilibrium expected from experiment. On the left, the interface oscillates more and more (think to sin(tx) as t grows); on the right, the interface is flat but has split into three pieces that separate fluids 1 and 2 alternatively.

is then : to what extent does the hydrodynamic equation reproduce the behaviour expected from experiment ? Let us end this paragraph by making a comment on the numerical counterpart of the questions we address here. Checking that the mathematical model does reproduce the reality in very simple situations might be of primary interest when instabilities are observed in the numerical experimentations for most difficult cases (or even for these simple cases). Indeed, one must then settle the following question : are such instabilities due to the numerical approximation, or to the continuous mathematical model *per se* ? In addition, knowing that the mathematical model have the good dissipativity properties helps in the process of designing numerical algorithms that also share the same properties. On this latter point, we refer the reader to the work of F. Armero and J.C. Simo [4]. In this reference, one may also find an enlightening presentation of the theoretical concepts of attractors and related notions, that we have hardly approached above, precisely in the context of MHD equations (but in the *one* fluid case).

1.2 Summary of our results

Paradoxically, simple as it might seem, the question To what extent does the hydrodynamic equation reproduce the behaviour expected from experiment ? has not been addressed before in this framework, to our knowledge at least. Because, as shown above, this is a situation extensively addressed in the literature devoted to applications, and because it is a case that exhibits very particular properties, we first consider this question in the linearized setting. This is the purpose of Section 3. We shall detail in particular there the role played by the surface tension. The system that we shall consider there (see

below in Section 2 how we derivate it from (1.1) is the following :

$$\begin{cases} \rho_0 \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} - \Delta u = -\nabla p - (\psi - \gamma \Delta_{x,y} \psi) \delta_{z=0} e_z, \\ \operatorname{div} u = 0, \text{ in } \Omega, \\ \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} - u_z = 0 \text{ on } z = 0, \end{cases}$$
(1.6)

with the boundary conditions

$$u(\cdot, t) = 0$$
 on $\partial\Omega$, for all t , (1.7)

In this system, (x, y, z) denote the three coordinates, z being along the vertical direction. The density ρ_0 is the steady-state density (consisting of the two layers of fluids separated by a flat interface at z = 0), the field u(x, y, z, t)is the linearized velocity field, the field p is likewise the linearized pressure field, the function $\psi(x, y, t)$ defines the position of the interface in this linearized setting through the equation $z = \psi(x, y, t)$ (see Figure 4.2). The measure $\delta_{z=0}$ is the measure of unit charge supported by the 2-dimensional plane z = 0. In addition, in this introduction, all constants have been set to one, except the coefficient γ related to the surface tension that therefore vanishes in the case when there is no surface tension (Subsection 3.1).

Basically, the main results of these sections are the following ones, that we state here in a heuristic way.

Basic Results in the linear setting

(i) linear case without surface tension i.e. $\gamma = 0$

As time goes to infinity, the velocity u goes to 0 in H^1 , and the shape ψ of the interface goes to 0 in $H^{-\varepsilon}$ (for all $\varepsilon > 0$), and in weak- L^2 . It is not known whether that latter convergence holds true in L^2 .

(ii) linear case with surface tension i.e. $\gamma > 0$

As time goes to infinity, the velocity u goes to 0 in H^1 . The shape ψ of the interface goes in H^1 weak, up to an extraction, to some interface ψ_{∞} solution of the steady-state equation with zero velocity field. If in addition, the velocity u is assumed to remain regular for all time, then the convergence holds in H^1 and ψ_{∞} corresponds to the unique steadystate with zero velocity field sharing the same boundary condition as the initial data $\psi|_{t=0}$.

These results will be made precise below (see Propositions 6 and 7), but let us already make a few comments.

Consider first the case (i) without surface tension. It is to be mentionned that in this case, we can prove the existence of a solution with the regularity that allows one to make all the manipulations needed to prove part (i) of



FIG. 4.2: The linearized case. The interface is defined by the equation $z = \psi(x, y, t)$, the density ρ_0 is constant on both sides of the plane z = 0 (ρ_1 above, $\rho_2 > \rho_1$ below). The question is : does $\psi(\cdot, t) \longrightarrow 0$ as $t \longrightarrow +\infty$?

Proposition 1. In addition, despite the somewhat weak result of convergence of the interface given in part (i) of Proposition 1 (oscillations may appear), it remains that, in some weak sense at least, the fluid does return to its stable steady-state in this linearized setting. Therefore we may conclude, in a very rough way at least, that the physical behaviour is obtained. We shall see below that this is out of our reach in the analogous case in the nonlinear setting.

In the case with surface tension, the situation is less simple. We are able to show an existence result for a reasonably regular solution of the equations. We can show that the velocity goes to zero as time goes to infinity, and we can identify the set of all possible limits for the shape of the interface ψ . This set consists of all steady-states ψ_{∞} associated to a zero velocity field. Unfortunately, without any additionnal assumption, we are not able to bootstrap enough regularity on the velocity field to identify in this set the limit of ψ (recall the link mentionned above between existence of regular solutions and behaviour of the solutions at infinity). If we assume some better regularity for the velocity field, then we are able to completely determine the behaviour of the interface as time goes to infinity. It turns out then that the behaviour obtained is at least surprising from a physical viewpoint (see the details in Section 3).

The strategy to obtain the behaviours at infinity of the solution basically follows the same patterns in case (i) and in case (ii), nevertheless each of these two cases requires very special techniques that differ from one case to the other. That is the reason why we present both settings here.

Once we have treated the linearized setting, we go back, in Section 4 to the nonlinear equations (1.1).

The situation is radically different, the drastic difference lying basically in two facts. Of course the nonlinear setting leads to well known difficulties : some compactness is required in order to determine the behaviour of the nonlinear terms, and obtaining such a compactness through *a priori* estimates is a real difficulty. But mostly for the aspects we are interested in here, the difference with the linearized case is primarily due to the tremendous difference between the number of steady-state solutions in each case. Indeed, in the linearized case ((1.6) with $\gamma = 0$), it is easy to see that if $(u = 0, \psi)$ is a steady-state solution, then $-\nabla p + \psi \delta_{z=0} e_z = 0$ thus ψ is a constant. Therefore, if one wants to reach such a steady state through an evolution for which $\int_{\Sigma} \psi \, d\sigma = 0$, one necessarily obtains $\psi = 0$. Therefore, the only steady state that can be reached with $u \longrightarrow 0$, is $\psi = 0$.

On the contrary, in the nonlinear setting (1.1), there are infinitely many steady state solutions with u = 0. Indeed, when there is no surface tension, it is easy to see that the flat interface may be splitted in many pieces (possibly infinitely many), giving rise to stratified steady states as shown in Figure 4.1.

The difficulty would not be that great if these steady states were in some way quantized. Now it turns out that they form a continuum of energy in the neighbourhood of the steady state of minimal energy.

When there is surface tension, it will be shown in Section 4 that infinitely many shapes of interface are convenient, also forming a continuum of energy near the minimal energy steady-state. We have seen that in the linearized setting, such a set of steady-states also exists. But the difficulty is now that identifying the limit would require a regularity that seems out of reach (so far as we know) for the nonlinear equations.

The results we have obtained in the nonlinear setting are the following proposition (once more we state the results in a rather schematic way).

Basic Results in the nonlinear setting

(i) nonlinear case without surface tension i.e. $\gamma = 0$

As time goes to infinity, the velocity u goes to 0 in H^1 in some weak sense (see (4.34)), and the density ρ goes to a density $\rho_{\infty} = \rho_{\infty}(z)$ in some weak sense. In two dimensions, $u(\cdot, t)$ goes to zero in $\mathbb{H}^{1-\varepsilon}$, $\forall \varepsilon > 0$.

(ii) nonlinear case with surface tension i.e. $\gamma > 0$

Under some reasonable assumption of regularity, the velocity u goes to 0 in H^1 , as time goes to infinity, in the same sense as in case (i), the density ρ goes to a density ρ_{∞} in a stronger sense (see (4.46)).

In both cases, we are not able to identify ρ_{∞} , and we exhibit an infinity of steady-states, possible limits whose energy is arbitrarily close to the solution with minimal energy.

We now turn to the detailed statements and proofs of the results announced above.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Derivation of the linearized equations

The derivation of the linearized Navier-Stokes equations for two fluids is somewhat standard and we only reproduce it here for the sake of self consistency.

Our starting point is the incompressible Navier-Stokes equations for two immiscible fluids of constant positive densities ρ_1 , ρ_2 :

$$\partial_t(\rho u) + \operatorname{div}(\rho u \otimes u) - \eta \Delta u = -\nabla p + \rho f_m + f_v,$$

$$\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div}(\rho u) = 0,$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0.$$
(2.1)

Remark 2.1 For the sake of simplicity, we suppose that the viscosity η is constant over the domain, and we therefore set it to 1 henceforth. We could as well consider a variable viscosity of the form $\eta(\rho)$ which gives rise to a term div $(\eta \nabla^s u)$ in the equation (2.1) instead of the term $\eta \Delta u$, where $\nabla^s u$ denotes the symmetrized gradient of u. All the results we obtain in this work hold true mutatis mutandis except the somewhat technical result of regularity established at the end of Section 3.1.2 and, more important, the results of Section 4.3.2 where the hypothesis of constant η enables us to improve the regularity of the flow in two dimensions. As mentioned there, the results of Section 4.3.2 may however be extended to the case of slight variable viscosities, in the sense of B. Desjardins (see [26]).

We assume that the given forces are such that $(u = 0, p = p_0, \rho = \rho_0)$ is a steady state solution. We also assume that the domain Ω has Lipschitz continuous boundary Ω which will allow us to make use in the sequel of all the standard theorems of regularity and trace for convenient Sobolev exponents. We now derivate the linearized equations in the neighborhood of this steadystate solution. For the sake of simplicity, we assume in this derivation that the massic forces are only due to the gravity, but it is a straightforward modification of the following argument to extend this linearization procedure to the case when there are other massic forces. We denote by ρ_0 the steady state solution for the density :

$$\rho(\cdot, t=0) = \rho_0(\cdot) = \begin{cases} \rho_1 > 0, & \text{constant in } \Omega_1, \\ \rho_2 > 0, & \text{constant in } \Omega_2, \end{cases}$$
(2.2)

where the partition Ω_1, Ω_2 is entirely fixed by the given forces the system is subjected to. In the purely gravitational case that we consider here, Ω_1 and Ω_2 are the two subdomains separated by the flat horizontal interface at z = 0 as shown in Figure 4.2. Let us consider a "small" constant $\varepsilon > 0$ which defines the size of the perturbation, and denote by $(\varepsilon u_{\varepsilon}, \rho_0 + \varepsilon \rho_{\varepsilon}, p_0 + \varepsilon p_{\varepsilon})$ the solution to the above Navier-Stokes equations. Neglecting the terms of second order or more with respect to ε , we obtain

$$\begin{split} \varepsilon \rho_0 \partial_t u_{\varepsilon} - \varepsilon \Delta u_{\varepsilon} &= -\nabla (p_0 + \varepsilon p_{\varepsilon}) + (\rho_0 + \varepsilon \rho_{\varepsilon}) f_m + f_v, \\ \varepsilon \partial_t \rho_{\varepsilon} + \varepsilon \operatorname{div} (\rho_0 u_{\varepsilon}) &= 0, \\ \operatorname{div} u_{\varepsilon} &= 0, \end{split}$$

which, in view of the stationary equation

$$0 = -\nabla p_0 + \rho_0 f_m + f_v \tag{2.3}$$

may be written

Let us now define the function ψ such that the shape of the perturbed interface (with respect to the steady-state flat horizontal interface z = 0) is given by the equation $z = \varepsilon \psi(x, y, t)$ at any time t. We assume that

$$\int_{\{z=0\}} \psi(\cdot, t=0) = 0.$$
 (2.5)

We have

$$\rho_0 + \varepsilon \rho_{\varepsilon}(x, y, z, t) = \begin{cases} \rho_1, & \text{if } z > \varepsilon \psi(x, y, t), \\ \rho_2, & \text{if } z < \varepsilon \psi(x, y, t), \end{cases}$$

and therefore

$$\rho_{\varepsilon} = \begin{cases} 0, \text{ if } z > max(0, \varepsilon\psi(x, y, t)) \text{ or } z < min(0, \varepsilon\psi(x, y, t)), \\ \frac{1}{\varepsilon}(\rho_2 - \rho_1), \text{ if } 0 < z < \varepsilon\psi(x, y, t)), \\ \frac{1}{\varepsilon}(\rho_1 - \rho_2), \text{ if } \varepsilon\psi(x, y, t) < z < 0. \end{cases}$$
(2.6)

In the sense of distributions, we see that, as ε goes to 0, the function ρ_{ε} goes to the distribution *m* defined for any arbitrary $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}(\Omega)$ by

$$\langle m, \varphi \rangle = (\rho_2 - \rho_1) \int_{z=0} \psi \varphi,$$
 (2.7)

which is in fact a bounded measure on Ω , supported on the plane z = 0.

Therefore, from the equations (2.4), we obtain the linearized equations

$$\rho_0 \partial_t u - \Delta u = -\nabla p + m f_m,$$

div $u = 0$, in Ω
 $\partial_t m - (u \cdot \nabla \rho_0) = 0.$



FIG. 4.3: In the linearized case, some part of the curve $z = \psi(x, y, t)$ may a priori ly outside the domain Ω .

In the purely gravitational case, the massic forces are $f_m = -e_z$ (we set the gravitational constant to unity), and we consider the perturbations with respect to the standard steady-state where the heaviest fluid fills in the zone below the plane z = 0. Then, the gradient of ρ_0 is the measure $\nabla \rho_0 =$ $-(\rho_2 - \rho_1)e_z$ concentrated on the plane z = 0. For the sake of simplicity, we henceforth normalize the jump of densities $\rho_2 - \rho_1$ to unity, and denote by $\psi \delta_{z=0}$ the measure m. The linearized equations therefore read

$$\rho_0 \partial_t u - \Delta u = -\nabla p - \psi \delta_{z=0} e_z, \qquad (2.8)$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0, \ in \ \Omega \tag{2.9}$$

$$\partial_t \psi - u \cdot e_z = 0, \ on \ \{z = 0\}$$
 (2.10)

We shall deal with this system in Subsection 3.1 below.

Note that the interface consisting in the \mathcal{C}^{∞} set $\{z = 0\}$, we are allowed to apply the classical trace theorems $W^{k,p}(\Omega) \longrightarrow W^{r,s}(\{z = 0\})$ for any convenient k, p, r, s with k and r as large as we wish.

Remark 2.2 In the spirit of Remark 2.1, let us mention that if the viscosity η depends on the density through a law $\eta = \eta(\rho)$, the equation $\rho_0 \partial_t u - \Delta u = -\nabla p - \psi \delta_{z=0} e_z$ must be replaced by $\rho_0 \partial_t u - \eta(\rho_0) \Delta u = -\nabla p - \psi \delta_{z=0} e_z$.

2.2 About the surface tension

The argument of the previous subsection is now modified in order to take the surface tension into account. Going back to our starting point (2.1), we add to the right-hand side a term modelling the surface tension at the interface between the two fluids. Let us denote the normal to the interface by n (say from fluid 1 to fluid 2 to fix the ideas). The term \mathcal{T} modelling the surface tension may then be written as follows : it is the distribution defined, for any test velocity w, by

$$\langle \mathcal{T}, w \rangle = \int_{\Sigma} \gamma \, \mathcal{C} \, w \cdot n,$$
 (2.11)

where the coefficient γ denotes as in the introduction the amplitude of the surface tension, and where C denotes the local mean curvature of the interface oriented with n. This may also be written as follows

$$\langle \mathcal{T}, w \rangle = -\int_{\Sigma} \gamma(\operatorname{div} n) w \cdot n.$$
 (2.12)

It is important to note that the above expression does not depend of course on the orientation of the interface : it is quadratic with respect to n. It depends only on its local mean curvature.

Let us now argue as in Subsection 2.1 above : we linearize the equations in the neighborhood of the steady-state solution for the purely gravitational case (note that in this setting the presence of the surface tension term does not modify the steady-state, since the interface is flat for this steady-state). The perturbed interface is then defined by the equation $z = \varepsilon \psi(x, y, t)$. It is standard to compute the normal vector to such a surface, namely

$$n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \varepsilon^2 ((\partial_x \psi)^2 + (\partial_y \psi)^2)}} (-\varepsilon \partial_x \psi e_x - \varepsilon \partial_y \psi e_y + e_z), \qquad (2.13)$$

and the corresponding curvature

$$\mathcal{C} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\varepsilon \partial_{xx}^2 \psi (1 + (\varepsilon \partial_y \psi)^2) + \varepsilon \partial_{yy}^2 \psi (1 + (\varepsilon \partial_x \psi)^2) - 2\varepsilon^3 \partial_{xy}^2 \psi \partial_x \psi \partial_y \psi}{(1 + \varepsilon^2 ((\partial_x \psi)^2 + (\partial_y \psi)^2))^{3/2}} \quad (2.14)$$

If we now argue as we did in the previous subsection, and follow our linearization process, we only keep in the expression of Cn the term depending linearly on the parameter ε . This yields the following value of the linearized surface tension term \mathcal{T}_0 :

$$<\mathcal{T}_0, w>=\frac{1}{2}\gamma \int_{\{z=0\}} \Delta \psi \, w \cdot e_z \tag{2.15}$$

We henceforth set the coefficient $\frac{1}{2}\gamma$ to 1. Therefore, the linearized equations in this setting are

$$\rho_0 \partial_t u - \Delta u = -\nabla p - (\psi - \Delta \psi) \delta_{z=0} e_z,$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0, \ in \ \Omega$$

$$\partial_t \psi - u \cdot e_z = 0, \ on \ \{z = 0\}$$
(2.16)

Of course, the same calculation holds *mutatis mutandis* in 2 dimensions, where the interface is only a curve $z = \psi(x, t)$.

The study of the long time behaviour of the solution to (2.16) is the purpose of Section 3.2 below.

3 The linearized case

3.1 The linearized case without surface tension

In this subsection, we study the system

$$\begin{cases} \rho_0 \partial_t u - \Delta u = -\nabla p - \psi \delta_{z=0} e_z, \text{ in } \Omega, \\ \operatorname{div} u = 0, \text{ in } \Omega, \\ \partial_t \psi - u_z = 0, \text{ on } \Sigma = \{z = 0\}, \end{cases}$$
(3.1)

The next paragraph deals with a priori estimates. For the moment, we establish them formally, or at least under the assumption that u and ψ are sufficiently regular solutions of (3.1). All the manipulations we make will be justified (up to mild modifications if necessary) in the sequel.

3.1.1 A priori estimates

We begin with a basic remark : the last equation of (3.1) and the incompressibility constraint yield

$$\frac{d}{dt}\int_{z=0}\psi\,d\sigma=\int_{z=0}u_z\,d\sigma=\int_{\Omega_2}\operatorname{div} u\,dx=0,$$

thus, in view of (2.5),

$$\int_{z=0} \psi \, d\sigma = 0, \tag{3.2}$$

which means nothing but the mass conservation of each fluid.

First estimate Multiplying the first equation of (3.1) by u and integrating over the domain, we obtain

$$\int_{\Omega} \rho_0 \partial_t u \cdot u \, dx - \int_{\Omega} \Delta u \cdot u \, dx = - \int_{z=0} \psi u \cdot e_z \, d\sigma,$$

that is, using the third equation of (3.1),

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 dx + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \rho_0 u^2 dx = -\int_{z=0} \psi \partial_t \psi \, d\sigma.$$
(3.3)

We therefore obtain the standard first energy estimate

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 \, dx + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\int_{\Omega} \rho_0 u^2 \, dx + \int_{z=0} \psi^2 \, d\sigma \right) = 0. \tag{3.4}$$

From this estimate, we deduce first that

$$\sup_{t \in [0,\infty)} ||u||_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} \le C_1, \tag{3.5}$$

$$\sup_{t \in [0,\infty)} ||\psi||_{L^2(\Sigma)} \le C_1.$$
(3.6)

Then, integrating (3.4) in time from 0 to ∞ , we obtain

$$\int_0^{+\infty} \|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2 dt < +\infty.$$
(3.7)

Second estimate We differentiate the first equation of (3.1) in the t variable, we multiply it by $\partial_t u$ and integrate over Ω :

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}\rho_0(\partial_t u)^2\,dx + \int_{\Omega}|\nabla\partial_t u|^2\,dx = -\int_{z=0}\partial_t\psi\partial_t u\cdot e_z\,d\sigma.$$
(3.8)

Derivating the third equation of (3.1) with respect to time, we have

$$\partial_{tt}^2 \psi - \partial_t u \cdot e_z = 0, \tag{3.9}$$

and thus we obtain the second energy estimate :

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\left(\int_{\Omega}\rho_0(\partial_t u)^2\,dx + \int_{z=0}(\partial_t\psi)^2\,d\sigma\right) + \int_{\Omega}|\nabla\partial_t u|^2\,dx = 0 \qquad (3.10)$$

We easily deduce from (3.10) that

$$\sup_{t\in[0,\infty)} ||\partial_t u||_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} \le C^{st},\tag{3.11}$$

and

$$\sup_{t\in[0,\infty)} ||\partial_t \psi||_{L^2(\Sigma)} \le C^{st}.$$
(3.12)

Then, by integration in t from 0 to ∞ of (3.10), we obtain :

$$\int_{0}^{+\infty} ||\nabla \partial_{t} u||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2} dt < \infty.$$
(3.13)

3.1.2 Questions of existence and regularity

We suppose for the moment that $u_0 \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$ and $\psi_0 \in L^2(\Sigma)$. With the first *a priori* estimate, it is straightforward to prove the existence of a solution (u, ψ) satisfying $u \in L^{\infty}(0, T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)) \cap L^2(0, T; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))$ and $\psi \in L^{\infty}(0, T; L^2(\Sigma))$ for all arbitrary time T. It suffices for instance to consider a Galerkin approximation of a weak form of system (3.1), prove the analogous estimate of (3.4) for the finite dimensional solution, and then pass to the limit. We leave this standard point to the reader. We just emphasize that such a solution satisfies $\partial_t u \in L^2(0, T; V')$, where V' denotes the dual of $\{v \in \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega), \operatorname{div} v = 0\}$. Indeed, we have for $v \in L^2(0, T; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))$ with $\operatorname{div} v = 0$,

$$\int_{0}^{T} \left| \int_{\Omega} \partial_{t} u.v \, dx \right| \, dt \leq \int_{0}^{T} \left(\int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|.|\nabla v| \, dx + \int_{\Sigma} |\psi||v_{z}| \, d\sigma \right) \, dt \\ \leq C^{st} (||\nabla u||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega))} + ||\psi||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Sigma))}) ||v||_{L^{2}(0,T;\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega))}$$

The right-hand side of this inequality is easily controlled by (3.6) and (3.7).

A similar argument proves that $\partial_t \psi \in L^2(0,T; L^2(\Sigma))$. Indeed, for any $\phi \in L^2(0,T; L^2(\Sigma))$, we have

$$\int_0^T \left| \int_{\Sigma} \partial_t \psi . \phi \, ds \right| \, dt \quad \leq \quad \int_0^T \int_{\Sigma} |u_z| . |\phi| \, ds$$
$$\leq \quad C^{st} ||\nabla u||_{L^2(0,T;\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))} ||\phi||_{L^2(0,T;\mathbb{L}^2(\Sigma))}$$

This regularity results yield (see R. Temam [94] for example)

$$u \in \mathcal{C}([0,T]; \mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)), \forall T > 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} |u|^{2} dx = \int_{\Omega} \partial_{t} u.u \, dx, \quad (3.14)$$
$$\psi \in \mathcal{C}([0,T]; L^{2}(\Omega)), \forall T > 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{z=0} \psi^{2} \, d\sigma = \int_{z=0} \partial_{t} \psi \psi \, d\sigma.$$
$$(3.15)$$

Remark 3.1 In the case when $u_0 \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$ and $\psi_0 \in H^{1/2}(\Sigma)$, it is possible to show that $\psi \in \mathcal{C}^{1/2}([0,T]; H^{1/2}(\Sigma))$ and $\partial_t \psi \in L^2(0, +\infty; H^{1/2}(\Sigma))$.

In the same spirit, assuming now that $u_0 \in \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)$, div $u_0 = 0$, and $\psi_0 \in H^{1/2}(\Sigma)$, we can prove with the second estimate that we have a solution (u, ψ) satisfying $\partial_t u \in L^2(0, T; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)) \cap L^\infty(0, T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$ and $\partial_t \psi \in L^2(0, T; L^2(\Sigma))$. Thus, we have in particular $\partial_t \nabla u \in L^2(0, T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$ and $\nabla u \in L^2(0, T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$, therefore

$$u \in \mathcal{C}([0,T]; \mathbb{H}^{1}_{0}(\Omega)), \forall T > 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^{2} dx = \int_{\Omega} \partial_{t} \nabla u \cdot \nabla u \, dx.$$
(3.16)

Actually, we also have $u \in \mathcal{C}^{1/2}([0,T]; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))$ since $u \in H^1(0,T; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))$.

This gives a rigorous sense to all the manipulations we made above. Therefore, the solution we have obtained satisfies the energy equality (3.4). Likewise, it satisfies the second energy estimate (3.10), this time as an inequality (since we have no compactness on $\partial_t u$ in $L^2(0, T; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega))$):

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\left(\int_{\Omega}\rho_0(\partial_t u)^2\,dx + \int_{\Sigma}(\partial_t\psi)^2\,d\sigma\right) + \int_{\Omega}|\nabla\partial_t u|^2\,dx \le 0 \qquad \text{in } \mathcal{D}'(0,\infty)$$

and

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \rho_0(\partial_t u)^2 \, dx + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Sigma} (\partial_t \psi)^2 \, d\sigma + \int_0^T \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \partial_t u|^2 \, dx \le C^{st} \qquad \text{for all } T < \infty.$$
The two previous estimates (3.4) and (3.10) suffice to prove the existence results and to study the long time behaviour of the solution. Nevertheless, we end this paragraph by establishing an estimate that shows that the regularity of the solutions obtained with the two previous estimates can be improved locally in time, but (so far as we know) it does not give more information on the long time behaviour.

We multiply the first equation of (3.1) by $-\Delta u$ and integrate over Ω :

$$-\int_{\Omega} \rho_0 \partial_t u \cdot \Delta u \, dx + \int_{\Omega} |\Delta u|^2 \, dx = \int_{z=0} \psi \Delta u \cdot e_z \, d\sigma. \tag{3.17}$$

This estimate is somewhat even more formal that the two preceeding ones. Indeed, the function $-\Delta u$ does not vanish on the boundary $\partial\Omega$ even in a weak sense, contrarily to u itself and $\partial_t u$. Therefore *stricto sensu* the pressure term does not disappear. But we recall that all the estimates we do here on the continuous solution u for the sake of simplicity have to be made at first on the discrete Galerkin solution (see Section 3.1.2). It is standard in the study of Navier-Stokes to obtain regularity results on the solution by formally multiplying the equation by Δu : the rigorous counterpart of this formal argument is to use a special basis for the Galerkin approximation, that is a basis of functions $w_j \in (H_0^1(\Omega))^N$ satisfying $-\Delta w_j + \nabla p_j = \lambda_j w_j$, div $w_j = 0$: in this latter context, the pressure term does disappear, which gives a sense to (3.17).

We now estimate the first term of (3.17):

$$-\int_{\Omega}\rho_0\partial_t u\cdot\Delta u\,dx = \frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}\rho_0|\nabla u|^2\,dx + \int_{z=0}\nabla u\cdot e_z\cdot\partial_t u\,d\sigma,\quad(3.18)$$

where the last term is estimated as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{z=0} \nabla u \cdot e_z \cdot \partial_t u \, d\sigma \right| &\leq \| \nabla u \cdot e_z \|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\{z=0\})} \| \partial_t u \|_{L^2(\{z=0\})} \\ &\leq C^{st} \| \nabla u \cdot e_z \|_{\mathbb{H}^{1/2}(\{z=0\})} \| \partial_t u \|_{\mathbb{H}^{1/2}(\{z=0\})} \\ &\leq C^{st} \| u \|_{\mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)} \| \nabla \partial_t u \|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, controlling the H^2 norm by elliptic regularity,

$$\left| \int_{z=0} \nabla u \cdot e_z \cdot \partial_t u \, d\sigma \right| \le C^{st} \|\Delta u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} \|\nabla \partial_t u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}. \tag{3.19}$$

On the other hand, we now estimate the right-hand side of (3.17). We denote by ψ_0 the initial position of the interface, we recall that we suppose that $\int_{z=0} \psi_0 d\sigma = 0$. For the sake of simplicity, we suppose also that $\psi_0 \in H_0^1(\Sigma)$. The third equation of (3.1) with the no-slip condition yields $\psi(t)|_{\partial\Omega\cap\{z=0\}} = 0$.

We denote by the subscript x, y the differential operators on z = 0: for instance, $\Delta_{x,y}$ is the Laplace-Beltrami operator $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}$ on the plane z = 0, and likewise div x, yu is the function $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}u \cdot e_x + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}u \cdot e_y$. Using the fact that div u = 0 we transform the first term of the right-hand side of (3.17) as follows:

$$\int_{z=0} \psi \Delta u \cdot e_z \, d\sigma = \int_{z=0} \psi \Delta_{x,y} u \cdot e_z \, d\sigma - \int_{z=0} \psi \operatorname{div}_{x,y} \partial_z u \, d\sigma,$$
$$= -\int_{z=0} \nabla \psi \cdot \nabla_{x,y} u \cdot e_z \, d\sigma + \int_{z=0} \nabla \psi \cdot \partial_z u \, d\sigma$$

where we have integrated by parts using $\psi(t)|_{\partial\Omega\cap\{z=0\}} = 0$.

Thus we obtain

$$\begin{split} \int_{z=0} \psi \Delta u \cdot e_z \, d\sigma &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{z=0} |\nabla \psi|^2 \, d\sigma + \int_{z=0} \nabla \psi \cdot \partial_z u \, d\sigma \\ &\leq -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{z=0} |\nabla \psi|^2 \, d\sigma + C^{st} \|\partial_z u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\{z=0\})} \|\nabla \psi\|_{L^2(\{z=0\})}, \\ &\leq -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{z=0} |\nabla \psi|^2 \, d\sigma + C^{st} \|\Delta u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} \|\nabla \psi\|_{L^2(\{z=0\})}, \end{split}$$

which we insert, together with (3.18) and (3.19), in (3.17) to obtain

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\int_{\Omega} \rho_0 |\nabla u|^2 dx + \int_{z=0} |\nabla \psi|^2 d\sigma \right) + \int_{\Omega} |\Delta u|^2 dx \\
\leq C^{st} (\|\Delta u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} \|\partial_t \nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} + \|\Delta u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} \|\nabla \psi\|_{L^2(\{z=0\})}).$$

and finally the following third energy estimate

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\int_{\Omega} \rho_0 |\nabla u|^2 \, dx + \int_{z=0} |\nabla \psi|^2 \, d\sigma \right) + \int_{\Omega} |\Delta u|^2 \, dx \\
\leq C^{st} \|\partial_t \nabla u\|_{L^2}^2 + C^{st} \|\nabla \psi\|_{L^2(\{z=0\})}^2. \quad (3.20)$$

This third estimate yields $u \in L^{\infty}(0,T; \mathbb{H}^{1}_{0}(\Omega)) \cap L^{2}(0,T; \mathbb{H}^{2}(\Omega)), \psi \in L^{\infty}(0,T; H^{1}(\Sigma))$ and $\partial_{t}\psi \in L^{2}(0,T; H^{3/2}(\Sigma)) \cap L^{\infty}(0,T; H^{1/2}(\Sigma))$, thus $\psi \in \mathcal{C}^{1/4}(0,T; H^{1}(\Sigma))$, for any arbitrary time T.

Unfortunately, the new bounds obtained with this estimate depend on the time T. Therefore, it improves the regularity results but it does not provide, so far as we know, any additional information on the behaviour of (u, ψ) as time goes to infinity.

3.1.3 Long time behaviour

Under the assumptions $u_0 \in \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)$, div $u_0 = 0$, and $\psi_0 \in H^{1/2}(\Sigma)$, we have built above a solution that satisfies in particular $u \in \mathcal{C}([0, +\infty); \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)), \psi \in \mathcal{C}([0, +\infty); \mathbb{L}^2(\Sigma)), \partial_t u \in \mathbb{L}^2_{loc}(0, +\infty; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega))$ and the two energy inequalities

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 \, dx + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\int_{\Omega} \rho_0 u^2 \, dx + \int_{z=0} \psi^2 \, d\sigma \right) \le 0.$$

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\left(\int_{\Omega}\rho_0(\partial_t u)^2\,dx + \int_{\Sigma}(\partial_t\psi)^2\,d\sigma\right) + \int_{\Omega}|\nabla\partial_t u|^2\,dx \le 0 \qquad \text{in } \mathcal{D}'(0,\infty)$$

Only with these properties, we are now able to determine the behaviour of (u, ψ) as time goes to infinity.

Behaviour of the velocity The second estimate allows us to establish the behaviour of u in $\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)$ as t goes to infinity. Indeed,

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 \, dx \end{vmatrix} &\leq \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \partial_t u| |\nabla u| \, dx \\ &\leq ||\nabla \partial_t u||_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} ||\nabla u||_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}$$

Relations (3.7) and (3.13) imply that the right-hand side of this inequality belongs to $L^1(0,\infty)$. Therefore, together with (3.7), we deduce that the function $t \to \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 dx$ belongs to $W^{1,1}(0,\infty)$. This yields

$$\lim_{t \to +\infty} \|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} = 0. \tag{3.21}$$

Behaviour of the interface So far, we have established convergence results about the velocity field u and its derivatives. Let us now use these informations in order to examine the behaviour of the shape of the interface ψ .

First, using (3.4), we see that

$$t \longrightarrow \int_{\Omega} \rho_0 u^2 \, dx + \int_{z=0} \psi^2 \, d\sigma \quad \text{is a nonincreasing continuous function of time } t \tag{3.22}$$

Thus, this quantity has a limit, denoted by α , as t goes to infinity.

$$\alpha = \lim_{t \to +\infty} \left[\int_{\Omega} \rho_0 u^2 \, dx + \int_{z=0} \psi^2 \, d\sigma \right]. \tag{3.23}$$

It follows from (3.21) that we have

$$\lim_{t \to +\infty} ||\psi||_{L^2(\Sigma)} = \alpha.$$
(3.24)

Since (3.6) holds, it is clear that $\psi(\cdot, t)$ lives in a bounded set of $L^2(\Sigma)$ and therefore that, up to an extraction in time, it is weakly convergent in this space. We are going to see that actually the whole sequence converges to 0 for the weak topology of L^2 .

For this purpose, we prove the following convergence result :

$$\lim_{t \to +\infty} \|\psi\|_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)} = 0.$$
 (3.25)

Let us introduce, for any time t the function $\varphi(x, y, t) \in H_0^1(\Sigma \cap \Omega)$, such that

$$-\Delta \varphi + \varphi = \psi. \tag{3.26}$$

It is standard that $\|\varphi\|_{H^1(\Sigma)} = \|\psi\|_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)}$. Next,

$$\frac{1}{2} \left| \frac{d}{dt} \| \varphi \|_{H^{1}(\Sigma)}^{2} \right| \leq \| \varphi \|_{H^{1}(\Sigma)} \| \partial_{t} \varphi \|_{H^{1}(\Sigma)}$$
$$= \| \psi \|_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)} \| \partial_{t} \psi \|_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)}$$
$$= \| \psi \|_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)} \| u \cdot e_{z} \|_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)}.$$

By a standard result for trace of divergence free fields,

$$||u \cdot e_z||_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)} \le C^{st} ||u||_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}.$$
(3.27)

It follows from the above two estimates that

$$\frac{1}{2} \left| \frac{d}{dt} \| \varphi \|_{H^1(\Sigma)}^2 \right| \le C^{st} \| \psi \|_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)} \| u \|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}.$$
(3.28)

We denote by $\dot{H}^{-1}(\Sigma)$ the quotient space $H^{-1}(\Sigma)/\mathbb{R}$. By definition of the \dot{H}^{-1} norm, we have

$$\|\psi\|_{\dot{H}^{-1}(\Sigma)} = \sup_{f \in H^1_0(\Sigma), \int_{\Sigma} f \, d\sigma = 0} \frac{\langle \psi, f \rangle}{\|f\|_{H^1(\Sigma)}}.$$

Using the fact that for any function $f \in H_0^1(\Sigma)$ such that $\int_{\Sigma} f \, d\sigma = 0$, there exists a divergence free field $w \in \mathbb{H}^{3/2}(\Omega)$ such that w = 0 on $\partial\Omega$, $w \cdot e_z = f$ on Σ , and $\|w\|_{\mathbb{H}^{3/2}(\Omega)} \leq C^{st} \|f\|_{H^1(\Sigma)}$, we may then write

$$\|\psi\|_{\dot{H}^{-1}(\Sigma)} \le C^{st} \sup \frac{\langle \psi, w \cdot e_z \rangle}{\|w\|_{\mathbb{H}^{3/2}(\Omega)}}.$$
(3.29)

If we now turn to the linearized equation (3.1), we see that, for any arbitrary time t,

$$\begin{aligned} \|\psi\|_{\dot{H}^{-1}(\Sigma)} &\leq C^{st} \sup \frac{\langle \rho_0 \partial_t u - \Delta u, w \rangle}{\|w\|_{\mathbb{H}^{3/2}(\Omega)}} \\ &\leq C^{st}(\|\partial_t u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} + \|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}). \end{aligned}$$

Using (3.7) and (3.13), this yields $\|\psi\|_{\dot{H}^{-1}(\Sigma)} \in L^2(0, +\infty)$. Thus, in view of (3.2), we have

$$\|\psi\|_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)} \in L^2(0, +\infty).$$
(3.30)

Let us next insert this information in (3.28) and use (3.5). This yields

$$\frac{d}{dt} \|\psi\|_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)}^2 \in L^1(0, +\infty).$$
(3.31)

The two assertions (3.30) and (3.31) together imply that

$$\|\psi\|_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)}^2 \in W^{1,1}(0,+\infty).$$
(3.32)

Therefore, ψ tends to 0 in $H^{-1}(\Sigma)$, and (3.25) holds.

Remark 3.2 The same argument as above, but with some technical modifications, shows that the convergence of ψ to 0 also holds in $H^{-1/2}$.

In view of (3.25) and of the L^2 bound on ψ (3.6), it is straightforward to see that ψ converges weakly to 0 in L^2 .

From (3.25) and (3.6), we also deduce by interpolation that, for all $\varepsilon > 0$, we have

$$\lim_{t \to +\infty} \|\psi\|_{H^{-\varepsilon}(\{z=0\})} = 0.$$
(3.33)

We now collect in the following Proposition the information we have obtained in this Section on the behaviour as time goes to infinity of the solution to (3.1).

Proposition 6

In the linearized case without surface tension (3.1), the behaviour as time goes to infinity of a solution u, ψ satisfying the estimates recalled at the beginning of Section 3.1.3, is the following :

(i) the velocity field u goes to 0 in $\mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega)$.

(ii) the shape ψ of the interface goes to 0 in $H^{-\varepsilon}$ (for all $\varepsilon > 0$) and in weak- L^2 .

In addition,

(iii) $\|\psi\|_{L^2(\Sigma)}$ has a limit as t goes to infinity, (iv) $\int_0^\infty \|u\|_{\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)}^2 + \|\partial_t u\|_{\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)}^2 dt < +\infty.$

Remark 3.3 In this setting we cannot control (as far as we know at least) the L^{∞} norm of ψ . In other words, nothing seems to ensure that the graph of ψ , which models the interface, does not go out of the domain Ω (see Figure 4.3). This is of course in contradiction with the intuition ! It is not clear whether it must be interpreted as the possibility of some explosion of the system within a finite time or not.

Remark 3.4 It is not known whether the convergence of ψ to 0 holds true for the strong topology of L^2 . This is a very interesting open question. Typically, say in 2 dimensions to fix the ideas, one must show that some oscillation of the form $\psi(x, t) = \sin(x\sqrt{t})$ cannot occur.

3.2 The linearized case with surface tension

In this subsection, we consider the linearized equations in presence of surface tension (2.16). We essentially follow the same scheme as in Section 3.1: we first establish formally *a priori* bounds, next we study the long time behaviour.

3.2.1 A priori estimates

First estimate Let us first multiply the equation

$$\rho_0 \partial_t u - \Delta u = -\nabla p + (\Delta \psi - \psi) \delta_{z=0} e_z \tag{3.34}$$

by u and integrate over the domain Ω . All the terms, except the surface tension term in $\Delta \psi$, have already been treated in Subsection 3.1 above (see equations (3.3) and (3.4)). Therefore we concentrate on that latter term. We have, integrating by parts,

$$\begin{split} \int_{\Sigma} \Delta \psi u \cdot e_z \, d\sigma &= \int_{\Sigma} \Delta \psi \partial_t \psi \, d\sigma \\ &= -\int_{\Sigma} \nabla \psi . \nabla \partial_t \psi \, d\sigma + \int_{\Sigma \cap \partial \Omega} \nabla \partial_t \psi . n_{\Sigma} . \partial_t \psi \, d\lambda \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Sigma} |\nabla \psi|^2 \, d\sigma. \end{split}$$

Hence, the first estimate (3.4) of Subsection 3.1 is replaced here by

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 \, dx + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\int_{\Omega} \rho_0 u^2 \, dx + \int_{\Sigma} (\psi^2 + |\nabla \psi|^2) \, d\sigma \right) = 0. \tag{3.35}$$

It is immediate to deduce from this equality the following three estimates :

$$\int_0^{+\infty} \|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2 dt < +\infty, \qquad (3.36)$$

$$\sup_{t \in [0,\infty)} \|u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2 \le C^{st},\tag{3.37}$$

$$\sup_{t \in [0,\infty)} \|\psi\|_{H^1(\Sigma)}^2 \le C^{st}.$$
(3.38)

Moreover

$$t \longrightarrow \|\sqrt{\rho_0} u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2 + \|\psi\|_{H^1(\Sigma)}^2 \quad \text{is a nonincreasing function of time } t.$$
(3.39)

Remark 3.5 When Ω is a domain of \mathbb{R}^2 , the set $\Sigma = \{z = 0\}$ is one dimensional, and thus $H^1(\Sigma) \hookrightarrow L^{\infty}(\Sigma)$. Therefore the estimate (3.38) yields a control of $\|\psi\|_{L^{\infty}(\Sigma)}$. If the initial data is small enough, this ensures that the graph of ψ remains inside Ω (compare with Remark 3.3).

We now turn to another energy estimate anologous to (3.10).

Second estimate We differentiate (3.34) with respect to the time, we multiply it by $\partial_t u$ and we integrate over Ω . We only treat the term related to the tension surface since the others have already been computed in the second estimate of Section 3.1.1.

$$\begin{split} \int_{\Sigma} \Delta \partial_t \psi \partial_t u \cdot e_z \, d\sigma &= \int_{\Sigma} \Delta \partial_t \psi \partial_{tt} \psi \, d\sigma \\ &= -\int_{\Sigma} \nabla \partial_t \psi . \nabla \partial_{tt} \psi \, d\sigma + \int_{\Sigma \cap \partial\Omega} \nabla \partial_t \psi . n_{\Sigma} . \partial_{tt} \psi \, d\lambda \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Sigma} |\nabla \partial_t \psi|^2 \, d\sigma. \end{split}$$

We deduce the second estimate :

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla \partial_t u|^2 \, dx + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\int_{\Omega} \rho_0 |\partial_t u|^2 \, dx + \int_{\Sigma} (|\partial_t \psi|^2 + |\nabla \partial_t \psi|^2) \, d\sigma \right) = 0.$$
(3.40)

It is immediate to deduce from this estimate the following estimates :

$$\int_{0}^{+\infty} \|\nabla \partial_{t} u\|_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2} dt < +\infty, \qquad (3.41)$$

$$\sup_{t\in[0,\infty)} \|\partial_t u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2 \le C^{st},\tag{3.42}$$

$$\sup_{t \in [0,\infty)} \|\partial_t \psi\|_{H^1(\Sigma)}^2 \le C^{st}.$$
(3.43)

3.2.2 Questions of existence and regularity

As in Section 3.1.2, we can prove under the assumptions that $u_0 \in \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$ and $\psi_0 \in \mathbb{H}^1(\Sigma)$, that the above energy estimate (3.35) yields the existence of a solution $u \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega)) \cap L^{\infty}(0,T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)), \psi \in L^{\infty}(0,T; H^1(\Sigma)),$ on any finite time interval (0,T).

Likewise, assuming the required regularity $u_0 \in \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)$, div $u_0 = 0$, and $\psi_0 \in H_0^{5/2}(\Sigma)$, on the initial data, the estimate (3.40) yields the existence of a solution satisfying $\partial_t u \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}_0^1(\Omega)) \cap L^\infty(0,T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)),$ $\partial_t \psi \in L^\infty(0,T; H^1(\Sigma))$, on any finite time interval (0,T).

In particular, it is worth noticing that such a solution satisfies :

$$u \in \mathcal{C}(0, T; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega)), \text{ for any } T > 0, \qquad (3.44)$$

$$\psi \in \mathcal{C}(0,T; H^1(\Sigma)), \text{ for any } T > 0, \qquad (3.45)$$

$$\partial_t \psi \in \mathcal{C}(0,T; H^{1/2}(\Sigma)), \text{ for any } T > 0.$$
 (3.46)

Remark 3.6 In fact, some better regularity is available : we also have $u \in \mathcal{C}^{1/2}(0,T;\mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega)), \ \psi \in Lip(0,T;H^1(\Sigma)), \ \partial_t \psi \in \mathcal{C}^{1/2}(0,T;H^{1/2}(\Sigma)).$

3.2.3 Long time behaviour

Behaviour of the velocity The arguments to study the long time behaviour of the velocity in this setting are those already used in the case without surface tension. We have :

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 \, dx \end{vmatrix} &\leq \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \partial_t u| |\nabla u| \, dx \\ &\leq ||\nabla \partial_t u||_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} ||\nabla u||_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}$$

Relations (3.36) and (3.41) imply that the right-hand side of this inequality belongs to $L^1(0,\infty)$. Therefore, together with (3.36), we deduce that the function $t \to \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 dx$ belongs to $W^{1,1}(0,\infty)$. This yields

$$\lim_{t \to +\infty} \|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} = 0.$$
(3.47)

Behaviour of the interface According to the continuity of u and ψ (see (3.44), (3.45)), we deduce from the linearized Navier-Stokes equations that $\partial_t u \in \mathcal{C}(0, \infty; \mathbb{H}^{-3/2}(\Omega)).$

Properties (3.36) and (3.41) yield that there exists a sequence $(t_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, $t_n > 0$, $\lim_{n \to +\infty} t_n = +\infty$ such that $||\partial_t u(t_n)||_{\mathbb{H}^{-3/2}(\Omega)}$ and $||u(t_n)||_{\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)}$ both go to zero as $n \to \infty$. Extracting a subsequence if necessary, we may assume, in view of (3.38), that $\psi(t_n)$ converges weakly in H^1 to some ψ_{∞} . Therefore we can pass to the limit in

$$\rho_0 \partial_t u(t_n) - \Delta u(t_n) = -\nabla p(t_n) + (\Delta \psi(t_n) - \psi(t_n)) \delta_{\Sigma} e_z$$

which gives $(-\Delta \psi_{\infty} + \psi_{\infty})e_z\delta_{\Sigma} = -\nabla p_{\infty}$. The left-hand side of this equality only depends on (x, y) whereas the right-hand side only depends on z. Therefore, the left-hand side is a constant.

Briefly speaking, we have proved that, up to an extraction, ψ converges as t goes to infinity to a function ψ_{∞} defined on Σ solution of

$$\begin{cases} -\Delta \psi_{\infty} + \psi_{\infty} = \alpha & \text{on } \Sigma, \\ \int_{\Sigma} \psi_{\infty} \, d\sigma = 0, \end{cases}$$
(3.48)

where α is some unknown constant. It is worth noticing that there exists an infinity of ψ_{∞} which satisfy (3.48), each of them being associated to *one* Dirichlet boundary condition on $\partial \Sigma$, and that the energy of these steadystates related to a fluid at rest describe a continuum. This statement can straightforwardly be checked in two dimensions ($\Omega \subset \mathbf{R}^2$) when the partial differential equation of (3.48) becomes an ordinary differential equation :

$$-\psi_{\infty}^{\prime\prime} + \psi_{\infty} = \alpha. \tag{3.49}$$

The solutions are of the form $\psi_{\infty} = ae^x + be^{-x} + \alpha$ where the three constants (a, b, α) are related together by the only condition that $\int_{\Sigma} \psi_{\infty} = 0$, namely

$$a(e^{L} - 1) - b(e^{-L} - 1) + \alpha L = 0, \qquad (3.50)$$

where L is the length of Σ . The energy associated to such a solution is

$$\int_{\Sigma} (\psi_{\infty}')^2 + (\psi_{\infty})^2 = \int_{\Sigma} (ae^x - be^{-x})^2 + (ae^x + be^{-x} + \alpha)^2, \qquad (3.51)$$

which can be shown to be arbitrarily close to the zero energy of the interface with minimum energy $\psi_{\infty} \equiv 0$, even under the condition (3.50). We leave to the reader the analogous proof in three dimensions.

Assuming a little more regularity on u we can improve this result. Indeed, if we suppose that $u \in \mathcal{C}(0,T; \mathbb{H}^{1+\varepsilon}(\Omega))$ for any T > 0 (compare with (3.44)), the function $u_z(t)|_{\Sigma}$ belongs to $\mathbb{H}^{1/2+\varepsilon}(\Sigma)$ and thus has a trace on $\partial \Sigma$ (other assumptions than the $\mathbb{H}^{1+\varepsilon}(\Omega)$ regularity are possible, namely any regularity $W^{r,s}$ which allows to define a trace on $\partial \Sigma$). Therefore, in this case $\partial_t \psi(t)|_{\partial \Sigma} = 0$ for $t \ge 0$. In particular $\psi_{\infty}|_{\partial \Sigma} = \psi_0|_{\partial \Sigma}$, where $\psi_0 = \psi|_{t=0}$. Then we claim that the limit ψ_{∞} is now precisely identified as the unique solution of

$$\begin{cases}
-\Delta \psi_{\infty} + \psi_{\infty} = \alpha & \text{on } \Sigma, \\
\psi_{\infty} = \psi_{0} & \text{on } \partial \Sigma, \\
\int_{\Sigma} \psi_{\infty} d\sigma = 0.
\end{cases}$$
(3.52)

In other words, the possible indetermination of the limit ψ_{∞} has disappeared, because the linearized system has kept memory of the boundary value of the initial data $\psi|_{t=0}$.

We now prove the convergence in time to ψ_{∞} . For ease of notation, we introduce the functions $\overline{\psi}$ and h defined on $\Sigma \times (0,T)$ by $\overline{\psi} = \psi - \psi_{\infty}$ and $h = -\Delta \overline{\psi} + \overline{\psi}$. It is worth noticing that $\overline{\psi}(t)$ vanishes on $\partial \Sigma$ for any time tand $h\delta_{\Sigma}e_z = \Delta u - \partial_t u - \nabla p - \alpha$. We denote by $\dot{H}^{-1}(\Sigma)$ the quotient space $H^{-1}(\Sigma)/\mathbb{R}$. By definition,

$$||h||_{\dot{H}^{-1}(\Sigma)} = \sup_{\phi \in H^1_0(\Sigma), \int_{\Sigma} \phi \, d\sigma = 0, \phi \neq 0} \frac{|\langle h, \phi \rangle|}{||\phi||_{H^1(\Sigma)}}.$$

For $\phi \in H_0^1(\Sigma)$ with $\int_{\Sigma} \phi \, d\sigma = 0$, there exists $w \in \mathbb{H}_0^1(\Omega)$ (even in $\mathbb{H}^{3/2}(\Omega) \cap \mathbb{H}_0^1(\Omega)$) such that div w = 0 and $w \cdot e_z|_{\Sigma} = f$. Thus,

$$\begin{split} ||h||_{\dot{H}^{-1}(\Sigma)} &\leq C^{st} \sup_{w \in \mathbb{H}^{1}_{0}(\Omega), divw=0} \frac{|\langle h, w \rangle|}{||w||_{\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega)}} \\ &\leq C^{st} \sup_{w \in \mathbb{H}^{1}_{0}(\Omega), divw=0} \frac{|\langle \Delta u - \partial_{t}u, w \rangle|}{||w||_{\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega)}} \\ &\leq C^{st} ||u||_{\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega)} + C^{st} ||\partial_{t}u||_{\mathbb{H}^{-1}(\Omega)}. \end{split}$$

In view of (3.41) and (3.36), this proves that $h \in L^2(0,\infty;\dot{H}^{-1}(\Sigma))$. It is straightforward to check that $||\overline{\psi}||_{H^1(\Sigma)} = ||h||_{\dot{H}^{-1}(\Sigma)}$. Indeed, on the one hand we note that $||\overline{\psi}||_{H^1(\Sigma)} = ||h||_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)}$ since $\overline{\psi}$ vanishes on $\partial \Sigma$, on the other hand we have

$$\begin{aligned} ||h||_{\dot{H}^{-1}(\Sigma)} &= \sup_{\phi \in H_0^1(\Sigma), \int_{\Sigma} \phi \, d\sigma = 0, \phi \neq 0} \frac{|\langle h, \phi \rangle|}{||\phi||_{H^1(\Sigma)}} \\ &\leq \sup_{\phi \in H_0^1(\Sigma), \phi \neq 0} \frac{|\langle h, \phi \rangle|}{||\phi||_{H^1(\Sigma)}} = ||h||_{H^{-1}(\Sigma)}, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{split} ||h||_{\dot{H}^{-1}(\Sigma)} &= \sup_{\phi \in H^1_0(\Sigma), \int_{\Sigma} \phi \, d\sigma = 0, \phi \neq} 0 \frac{|\langle h, \phi \rangle|}{||\phi||_{H^1(\Sigma)}} \\ &\geq \frac{|\langle -\Delta \overline{\psi} + \overline{\psi}, \overline{\psi} \rangle|}{||\overline{\psi}||_{H^1(\Sigma)}} = ||\overline{\psi}||_{H^1(\Sigma)}. \end{split}$$

Therefore,

$$\overline{\psi} \in L^2(0, \infty; H^1_0(\Sigma)). \tag{3.53}$$

We have moreover

$$\left| \frac{d}{dt} ||\overline{\psi}||^2_{H^1(\Sigma)} \right| \leq ||\overline{\psi}||_{H^1(\Sigma)} ||\partial_t \overline{\psi}||_{H^1(\Sigma)} \leq C^{st} ||\overline{\psi}||_{H^1(\Sigma)} ||u||_{H^1(\Omega)}.$$

This inequality together with (3.53) proves that $\|\overline{\psi}\|_{H^1(\Sigma)}^2 \in W^{1,1}(0,+\infty).$ Hence,

$$\lim_{t \to +\infty} ||\psi - \psi_{\infty}||_{H^1} = 0.$$
 (3.54)

Proposition 7

In the linearized case with surface tension (3.34), the behaviour of u, ψ (satisfying the two estimates of Section 3.2.1 and the regularity mentionned in Section 3.2.2) as time goes to infinity is the following :

(i) the velocity field u belongs to $\mathcal{C}(0, +\infty; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))$ and goes to 0 in $\mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega)$.

(ii) the shape ψ of the interface belongs to $\mathcal{C}(0, +\infty; H^1(\Sigma))$; there exists a sequence $t_n \to +\infty$ such that, in weak $-H^1$, $\psi(\cdot, t_n) \to \psi_\infty$ solution of (3.48).

In addition,

(iii) $\|\psi\|_{H^1(\Sigma)}$ has a limit as t goes to infinity,

 $\begin{array}{l} (iv) \int_{0}^{\infty} \|u\|_{\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega)}^{2} + \|\partial_{t}u\|_{\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega)}^{2} dt < +\infty. \\ \text{If we assume that the velocity } u \text{ remains more regular, say} \end{array}$ $\mathcal{C}(0,\infty;\mathbb{H}^{1+\varepsilon}(\Omega))$, then (ii) may be improved into

(v) Denote by ψ_{∞} the unique solution of (3.52) then ψ goes to ψ_{∞} in H^1 thus in L^p , for all $1 \leq p < +\infty$. In 2 dimensions, this also implies in particular that $\sup_{\Sigma} |\psi - \psi_{\infty}|$ goes to 0.

This Proposition deserves some comments.

Remark 3.7 We do not know whether the additional assumption of global regularity of u is automatically satisfied by the solution or not. But we need it in order to show (v).

Remark 3.8 Other types of "weak" convergence than (ii) can be proved. We refer the reader to the nonlinear case below.

Remark 3.9 The result (v) is somewhat puzzling. Indeed, assume that the flow remains regular, and suppose (just to fix the ideas) that Ω is a cylinder. Take an initial data $\psi(t=0)$ such that its boundary value is not a constant (and in particular it is not zero). If the coefficient of surface tension is small enough, it is expected that the limit ψ_{∞} of ψ will be the state of minimal energy $\psi_{\infty} \equiv 0$, or at least a state (meniscus-like) not too far from this state (remark that for the model we deal with in this work ψ_{∞} is the state of minimal energy, whereas from experiment, it is known that it is the meniscus which minimizes the energy; this is related to the modelling of the surface tension we have chosen and to the question of boundary conditions). Considering the case we deal with, the state is at least expected to be radially symmetric, thus have a constant boundary value. This cannot be the case ! Note in addition that the initial state may be chosen arbitrarily close to the expected limit, in such a way that we do not theoretically leave the setting of a small perturbation problem. The result (v) suggests the following alternative in such a situation : either the flow becomes singular at some time (in the sense that it is not more regular than H^1) or we may conclude that the linearized model does not reproduce the physical observation.

Remark 3.10 There exists an infinity of steady-states with zero velocity field and since they form a continuum of energy it is not possible to discriminate among them in (ii). Of course, if the system is in such a steady state at t = 0, it remains there. A similar situation will be observed in the nonlinear case.

Remark 3.11 All the difficulties we experiment in the treatment of the boundary value $\partial_t \psi = 0$ have their numerical counterpart. The macroscopic non-slip condition u = 0 on the boundary is obviously not true on the microscopic scale and one must find numerical tricks to artificially move the interface on the boundary of the domain.

4 The nonlinear case

We now return to the nonlinear case, that is equations (1.1). As we will see below, and as we announced in the introduction, the situation is radically different from the situation encountered in Section 3 for the linearized case. Let us begin with a heuristic argument that shows what we may expect in this case.

4.1 A heuristic argument

We begin with a very simple heuristic argument that shows that we expect that the velocity field vanishes as time goes to infinity. Multiplying by u the Navier-Stokes equation (1.1):

$$\partial_t(\rho u) + \operatorname{div}\left(\rho u \otimes u\right) - \Delta u = -\nabla p - \rho e_z, \qquad (4.1)$$

we obtain the standard energy estimate (we skip the details of the computations that will be made precisely below in the next two sections)

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{1}{2}\int_{\Omega}\rho u^2 \,dx + \int_{\Omega}\rho z \,dx\right) + \int_{\Omega}|\nabla u|^2 \,dx = 0.$$
(4.2)

It follows that

$$\int_{0}^{+\infty} \|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2} dt < +\infty.$$
(4.3)

This suggests that, in a formal sense at least, u goes to zero as time goes to infinity. We deduce then, in some way that obviously has to be made precise (we recall that we are only making here a formal argument), that $\partial_t(\rho u)$ also goes to zero. We then recover with the Navier-Stokes equation (4.1) that

$$-\nabla p - \rho e_z \longrightarrow 0$$

as t goes to infinity. This means that $-\nabla(p+\rho z) + z\nabla\rho$ goes to zero, which can be expressed as follows : curl $(z\nabla\rho) \to 0$, or also $\nabla\rho \times e_z$ goes to zero, which means that ρ becomes a function of z as time goes to infinity. If we admit, relying upon some common sense, that no mixing of the two fluids happens in the limit $t \to +\infty$, this implies that the interface between the two fluids is made of planes, which are parallel to the (O, x, y) plane, and which separate two consecutive layers of fluids. It is then to be remarked that nothing tells us that the interface is made of only **one** plane (see Section 4.2.1).

Let us now continue our formal argument by adding to the Navier-Stokes equation a term due the presence of surface tension (see 2.11).

$$\partial_t(\rho u) + \operatorname{div}\left(\rho u \otimes u\right) - \Delta u = -\nabla p - \rho e_z + \mathcal{T}.$$
(4.4)

The energy estimate then becomes (see the details below)

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{1}{2}\int_{\Omega}\rho u^2 \,dx + \int_{\Omega}\rho z \,dx + \frac{1}{2}L(\Sigma)\right) + \int_{\Omega}|\nabla u|^2 \,dx = 0,\tag{4.5}$$

where $L(\Sigma)$ denotes the measure of the interface Σ between the two fluids. The same argument as above shows that u and $\partial_t(\rho u)$ go to 0 as time goes to infinity. Next, with the Navier-Stokes equation we recover

$$-\nabla p - \rho e_z - (\operatorname{div} n) n \, \delta_{\Sigma} \longrightarrow 0,$$

where the normal vector n is also $n = \nabla \rho$. We therefore have

 $-\nabla(p+\rho z) + (z - \operatorname{div} n)\nabla\rho \longrightarrow 0.$

As above, it implies, taking for instance the curl of the above expression, that the quantity $z - \operatorname{div} n$ is constant along the connected components of the interface (assuming that $\nabla \rho$ is normal to the interface, namely there is non homogeneization in the fluids).

Of course, z = 0 (and thus $\nabla \rho = e_z$) is a solution to the equation giving the position of the interface at the equilibrium, but there exists a lot of other solutions (see Section 4.2.2 below).

In both cases (with or without surface tension) the above heuristic argument shows that the situation is the following :

- It is reasonably easy to show that the velocity field u goes to zero, at least in a weak sense, as time goes to infinity.
- As well, we can prove that ρ converges to some limit ρ_{∞} (in a weak sense also), which is a solution to the Navier-Stokes equation with zero velocity field.
- Only an argument based upon energetic considerations could possibly help us to discriminate between all the solutions ρ_{∞} of the Navier-Stokes equations with zero velocity field (in fact we shall see below that such an argument unfortunately cannot help us to conclude).

Therefore, before turning to the rigorous proofs of convergence of u and ρ to their limit, it is important to deal with the solutions $(u = 0, \rho)$ of the Navier-Stokes equations with or without surface tension.

4.2 An infinity of steady states

4.2.1 Without surface tension

As claimed above, as t goes to infinity, one can prove that the fluid velocity goes to zero and the density is a function of z. Nevertheless, we are not able to prove that the situation shown on the right-hand side of Figure 4.1 (several layers of the two fluids) cannot occur (it is in fact even worse than that, since there might exist an infinite superposition of layers, in the sense that the two fluids might mix with each other in the limit, but let us leave apart this situation that we shall detail in the sequel). Moreover, it is easy to check that the energy of such a pathological state may be arbitrarily close to the minimal energy of the system (when the heaviest fluid is below the flat interface, and the lightest above; a situation that we henceforth denote by the density ρ_0). Indeed, if suffices to swap in the minimal energy steadystate an arbitrary thin layer of the heaviest fluid with a layer of the lightest one. We then obtain a steady-state (namely a zero velocity field and flat interfaces between the two fluids) with an energy arbitrarily close to the minimal one.

4.2.2 With surface tension

In presence of surface tension, we have explained above that we expect to reach, as t goes to infinity, a state with zero velocity and an interface satisfying $z - \operatorname{div} n = C^{st}$ along each connected component.

As in the previous case, we do not know if the interface remains connected. Nevertheless, even if one would able to prove that the interface is a connected graph, we now show that there is still an infinity of steady-states.

For the sake of simplicity, we restrict ourselves to the the case when $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. Then, equation $z - \operatorname{div} n = C^{st}$ reads

$$z - rac{1}{2} rac{z''}{(1+z'^2)^{3/2}} = C^{st}.$$

We consider a case with a zero right-hand side. Integrating this equation we have

$$z^2 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+z'^2}} = C^{st}.$$
(4.6)

We assume that the constant is 1 and that the interface is a graph described by a one-to-one function z = z(x). Even under these restrictive hypotheses, there is still an infinity of solutions. Indeed, the functions

$$x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\operatorname{Argch} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{z} - 2\sqrt{1 - \frac{z^2}{2}} \right) + x_0.$$

where x_0 is a constant, are solution of (4.6) (see L. Landau, E. Lifchitz [61]). The curve is ploted on Figure 4.4 where the window represents the domain Ω . Notice that the window has to be translated along the z axis in order to satisfy the mass conservation. Moreover, it can be translated along the x axis by fixing the constant x_0 . It should be noted that the energy of the system tends to the minimal energy (flat interface) as the window is translated on the right.



FIG. 4.4: The window represents a domain $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, the curve is an interface solution of the steady state equations with surface tension and a zero velocity field.

Thus, we have outlined a proof of the existence of steady-states with zero velocity and a non-flat interface with an energy arbitrarily close to the minimal energy.

Remark 4.1 An analogous situation has been encountered in Section 3.2: the lack of information on the position of the interface on $\partial\Omega$ prevents us from identifying a unique steady-state. Nevertheless, to obtain this information in the linear case, it was sufficient to assume a slightly better regularity on u (namely $H^{1+\varepsilon}$) whereas in this nonlinear case, the regularity required to give a sense to $\partial_t \rho = -\operatorname{div}(\rho u)$ on $\partial\Omega$ seems definitely out of reach.

The consequence of the existence of infinitely many steady states $(u = 0, \rho)$ forming a continuum of energy above the state of minimal energy $(u = 0, \rho_0)$ is the following. Even if we were able to prove that the convergence of $(u(t, x), \rho(t, x))$ to $(u = 0, \rho_{\infty} = \rho(x))$ holds in a (reasonable) strong sense, we could not prove that $\rho_{\infty} = \rho_0$, thereby recovering with the mathematical model the behaviour expected from common sense.

Therefore we continue our study of the nonlinear case in the following spirit : we show in the next two sections how the convergences stated in a heuristic way in Section 4.1 for u and ρ can be made precise. For this purpose, we show *some* convergences for u and ρ . We do not pretend that these convergences cannot be improved, but in view of the above remark on the number of possible limits, we have chosen to present some convergences that can be established reasonably easily. It is likely that intricate arguments might lead to better convergences. They will however not allow to circumvent the main difficulty : it cannot be shown that the only limit is $(u = 0, \rho_0)$.

4.3 The nonlinear case without surface tension

4.3.1 A priori estimates, the general case

First, we observe that for any $\beta \in \mathcal{C}^1([0,\infty);\mathbb{R})$, we have

$$\partial_t(\beta(\rho)) + \operatorname{div}\left(u\beta(\rho)\right) = \beta'(\rho)\{\partial_t\rho + u.\nabla\rho\} = 0.$$

This yields (see P.-L. Lions [65] for details)

$$||\rho(t)||_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)} = ||\rho^{0}||_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)}, \forall t \ge 0,$$
(4.7)

and more precisely

$$\max\{x \in \Omega, \rho(x) = \rho_i\}, i = 1, 2 \text{ is independent of } t \ge 0.$$
(4.8)

Next, we multiply the Navier-Stokes equation

 $\partial_t(\rho u) + \operatorname{div}(\rho u \otimes u) - \Delta u = -\nabla p - \rho e_z$

by u and integrate over the domain. In doing so, we obtain

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \partial_t(\rho u) \cdot u \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} \left(\rho u \otimes u\right) \cdot u \, dx + \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 \, dx = -\int_{\Omega} \rho u \cdot e_z \, dx.$$
(4.9)

It is standard to compute the first two terms. We have

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \partial_t(\rho u) \cdot u \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \rho u^2 \, dx + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} (\partial_t \rho) u^2 \, dx, \tag{4.10}$$

$$\int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} \left(\rho u \otimes u\right) \cdot u \, dx = -\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \rho u \cdot \nabla(|u|^2) \, dx. \tag{4.11}$$

Adding (4.10) to (4.11) and making use of the equation of mass conservation in (1.1), we obtain

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \rho \partial_t (|u|^2) \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} \left(\rho u \otimes u\right) \cdot u \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \rho u^2 \, dx. \tag{4.12}$$

For the right-hand side of (4.9), we write

$$\int_{\Omega} \rho u \cdot e_z \, dx = \int_{\Omega} \rho u \cdot \nabla(z) \, dx = -\int_{\Omega} z \operatorname{div}\left(\rho u\right) dx = \int_{\Omega} z \partial_t \rho \, dx = \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \rho z \, dx.$$
(4.13)

Inserting (4.12) and (4.13) into (4.9), we obtain the first energy estimate

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{1}{2}\int_{\Omega}\rho u^2\,dx + \int_{\Omega}\rho z\,dx\right) + \int_{\Omega}|\nabla u|^2\,dx = 0.$$
(4.14)

From this energy estimate, we deduce that in particular

$$\int_{0}^{+\infty} \|u\|_{\mathbb{H}^{1}(\Omega)}^{2} dt < +\infty, \qquad (4.15)$$

 and

$$\sup_{t\in[0,\infty)}||u||_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}<+\infty.$$
(4.16)

4.3.2 A priori estimates, the bidimensional case

The rest of the argument depends on the dimension of the space. Moreover, in this Section, it is necessary to assume that the viscosity is constant over the domain (or to suppose at least that it is slightly variable, using the results of B. Desjardins [26]).

We now assume for the rest of this Subsection 4.3.2 that the domain Ω is a subset of \mathbf{R}^2 . We multiply (4.1) by $\partial_t u$ and integrate over the domain

$$\int_{\Omega} \rho(\partial_t u)^2 \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \rho u \cdot \nabla u \partial_t u \, dx + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 \, dx = -\int_{\Omega} \rho e_z \cdot \partial_t u \, dx.$$
(4.17)

The point is to treat the Navier term in the left-hand side. We have

$$\left|\int_{\Omega} \rho u \cdot \nabla u \partial_t u \, dx\right| \leq \|\rho\|_{L^{\infty}} \|u \cdot \nabla u\|_{L^2} \|\partial_t u\|_{L^2} \leq \|\rho\|_{L^{\infty}} \|\nabla u\|_{L^4} \|u\|_{L^4} \|\partial_t u\|_{L^2}.$$

We use the following inequality (of Gagliardo-Nirenberg type)

$$\|\nabla u\|_{L^4} \le C^{st} \|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^{1/2} \|u\|_{H^2}^{1/2}, \qquad (4.18)$$

which yields

$$\left| \int_{\Omega} \rho u \cdot \nabla u \partial_t u \, dx \right| \le \|\rho\|_{L^{\infty}} \|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^{1/2} \|u\|_{L^4} \|u\|_{H^2}^{1/2} \|\partial_t u\|_{L^2}.$$
(4.19)

Considering now (4.1), we remark that

$$\| - \Delta u + \nabla p \|_{L^2} \le C^{st} (\| \partial_t u \|_{L^2} + \| u \cdot \nabla u \|_{L^2} + \| \rho \|_{L^2}),$$

which, by standard elliptic regularity for the Stokes equation, yields

$$||u||_{H^2} \le C^{st}(||u||_{L^2} + ||\partial_t u||_{L^2} + ||u \cdot \nabla u||_{L^2} + ||\rho||_{L^2})$$

If we use again (4.18) we know for any $\varepsilon > 0$ the existence of a constant C_{ε} such that

$$\|u \cdot \nabla u\|_{L^{2}} \le \|u\|_{L^{4}} \|\nabla u\|_{L^{4}} \le C^{st} \|u\|_{L^{4}} \|\nabla u\|_{L^{2}}^{1/2} \|u\|_{H^{2}}^{1/2} \le \varepsilon \|u\|_{H^{2}} + C_{\varepsilon} \|u\|_{L^{4}}^{2} \|\nabla u\|_{L^{2}}$$

Taking ε small enough, we have

$$\frac{1}{2} \|u\|_{H^2} \le C^{st}(\|u\|_{L^2} + \|\partial_t u\|_{L^2} + \|u\|_{L^4}^2 \|\nabla u\|_{L^2} + \|\rho\|_{L^2}).$$
(4.20)

Inserting this latter estimate into (4.19), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\Omega} \rho u \cdot \nabla u \partial_{t} u \, dx \right| &\leq C^{st} \|\rho\|_{L^{\infty}} \|\nabla u\|_{L^{2}}^{1/2} \|u\|_{L^{4}} \|\partial_{t} u\|_{L^{2}} (\|u\|_{L^{2}}^{1/2} + \|\partial_{t} u\|_{L^{2}}^{1/2} \\ &+ \|u\|_{L^{4}} \|\nabla u\|_{L^{2}}^{1/2} + \|\rho\|_{L^{2}}^{1/2}). \end{aligned}$$

Since we know that $||u||_{L^2} + ||\rho||_{L^{\infty}}$ is bounded by a constant, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\Omega} \rho u \cdot \nabla u \partial_{t} u \, dx \right| &\leq C^{st} \| \nabla u \|_{L^{2}}^{1/2} \| u \|_{L^{4}} \| \partial_{t} u \|_{L^{2}} + C^{st} \| \nabla u \|_{L^{2}}^{1/2} \| u \|_{L^{4}} \| \partial_{t} u \|_{L^{2}}^{3/2} \\ &+ C^{st} \| \nabla u \|_{L^{2}} \| u \|_{L^{4}}^{2} \| \partial_{t} u \|_{L^{2}}. \end{aligned}$$

If we use now

$$\|u\|_{L^4} \le C^{st} \|u\|_{L^2}^{1/2} \|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^{1/2}, \qquad (4.21)$$

and note again that $\|u\|_{L^2}$ is bounded, we may bound the first term as follows

$$\|\nabla u\|_{L^{2}}^{1/2} \|u\|_{L^{4}} \|\partial_{t} u\|_{L^{2}} \leq C^{st} \|\partial_{t} u\|_{L^{2}} \|\nabla u\|_{L^{2}} \leq \varepsilon \|\partial_{t} u\|_{L^{2}}^{2} + C_{\varepsilon} \|\nabla u\|_{L^{2}}^{2}.$$

The second term is estimated by an interpolation inequality

$$\|\nabla u\|_{L^{2}}^{1/2} \|u\|_{L^{4}} \|\partial_{t} u\|_{L^{2}}^{3/2} \leq \varepsilon \|\partial_{t} u\|_{L^{2}}^{2} + C_{\varepsilon} \|\nabla u\|_{L^{2}}^{2} \|u\|_{L^{4}}^{4},$$

and the third term is estimated likewise by

$$\|\nabla u\|_{L^2} \|u\|_{L^4}^2 \|\partial_t u\|_{L^2} \le \varepsilon \|\partial_t u\|_{L^2}^2 + C_\varepsilon \|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^2 \|u\|_{L^4}^4.$$

Therefore, we have

$$\left| \int_{\Omega} \rho u \cdot \nabla u \partial_t u \, dx \right| \le \varepsilon \|\partial_t u\|_{L^2}^2 + C_{\varepsilon}(\|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^2 + \|u\|_{L^4}^4 \|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^2).$$
(4.22)

Now that we have controlled the Navier term, we turn to the right-hand side of (4.17)

$$\begin{split} \int_{\Omega} \rho e_z \cdot \partial_t u \, dx &= \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \rho e_z \cdot u \, dx - \int_{\Omega} \partial_t \rho e_z \cdot u \, dx \\ &= -\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} z \nabla \rho \cdot u \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} \left(\rho u \right) e_z \cdot u \, dx \\ &= \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \int_{\Omega} \rho z \, dx - \int_{\Omega} \rho u \cdot \nabla (e_z \cdot u) \, dx. \end{split}$$

Hence

$$-\int_{\Omega} \rho e_z \cdot \partial_t u \, dx \leq -\frac{d^2}{dt^2} \int_{\Omega} \rho z \, dx + C^{st} \|\rho\|_{L^{\infty}} \|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^2.$$

Inserting this latter estimate together with estimate (4.22) into (4.17), we obtain, for a small constant $\alpha > 0$,

$$\alpha \|\partial_t u\|_{L^2}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} (\|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^2 + \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \rho z \, dx) \le C^{st} (\|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^2 + \|u\|_{L^4}^4 \|\nabla u\|_{L^2}^2).$$
(4.23)

This estimate may be written

$$\|\partial_{t}u\|_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}(\|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2} + \frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}\rho z\,dx) \le C^{st}\|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2} + C^{st}\|u\|_{\mathbb{L}^{4}(\Omega)}^{4}\|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2},$$
(4.24)

or also

$$\|\partial_t u\|_{L^2}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} (\|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2 + \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \rho z \, dx) \le f(t) + g(t) \|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2, \quad (4.25)$$

where the nonnegative functions f(t) and g(t) are both $L^1(0, +\infty)$ since

$$f(t) = C^{st} \|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2}$$
(4.26)

$$g(t) = C^{st} \|u\|_{\mathbb{L}^4(\Omega)}^4 \le C^{st} \|u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2 \|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2 \le C^{st} \|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2.$$
(4.27)

We finally obtain the $a \ priori$ estimates by a Gronwall type argument : let us introduce

$$y(t) = \exp\left(-2\int_0^t g(s)ds\right) \|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2.$$

Inequality (4.25) yields

$$\frac{1}{2}y'(t) \le f(t) - \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \int_{\Omega} \rho z \, dx.$$

Integrating this inequality in the t variable and using

$$\left| -\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \rho z \, dx \right| = \left| -\int_{\Omega} \rho e_z \cdot u \, dx \right| \le C^{st} \|\rho\|_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)} \|u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} \le C^{st}$$

we obtain that $y \in L^{\infty}(0, \infty)$ which implies

$$\sup_{t\in[0,+\infty)} \|\nabla u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} < \infty.$$
(4.28)

Finally, integrating (4.25) we obtain

$$\int_0^\infty \|\partial_t u\|_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)}^2 dt < +\infty.$$
(4.29)

We deduce from (4.20) that for any T > 0,

$$||u||_{L^2(0,T;\mathbb{H}^2(\Omega))} < +\infty.$$
(4.30)

This new bound is not uniform in T but it allows to prove that u is a strong solution for all $t \in (0, +\infty)$ and that $u \in \mathcal{C}(0, \infty; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))$.

4.3.3 Questions of existence and regularity

The general case The first existence results in the setting of the Navier-Stokes equations with a free surface are local in time existence results due to V.A. Solonnikov [84] and to J.T. Beale [6]. Global existence for small initial data and $f \equiv 0$ is due to V. Solonnikov, [87] (bounded case) and to A. Tani & N. Tanaka [93] (unbounded case). In our case when two fluids are present, an existence result of weak solutions is due to A. Nouri, F. Poupaud [71], a global in time existence result of strong solutions for small data is announced in N. Tanaka [91] (bounded case, with an initial data consisting of a bubble of the first fluid enclosed in the second fluid), but the most exhaustive work to this day is due to P.-L. Lions. It is proved in P.-L. Lions [65] that there exists a weak solution to the system (1.1) defined on $[0, +\infty)$ satisfying for any time T > 0:

 $u \in L^2(0, T; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega)) \cap L^\infty(0, T; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)),$ (4.31)

$$\rho \in L^{\infty}((0,T) \times \Omega) \cap \mathcal{C}([0,T]; L^{p}(\Omega)), 1 \le p < \infty,$$
(4.32)

together with the energy inequality

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{1}{2}\int_{\Omega}\rho u^{2}\,dx+\int_{\Omega}\rho z\,dx\right)+\int_{\Omega}|\nabla u|^{2}\,dx\leq0.$$
(4.33)

Remark 4.2 Let us make a few remarks on the regularity of the flow. For the standard one fluid Navier-Stokes equation, it is well known that a global strong solution exists in 3D if the initial data and the forces are "small enough". As far as the body force term is concerned, "small" means small in a functional space of the type $L^p(0,\infty;X(\Omega))$ for some functional space $X(\Omega)$ and some $p < +\infty$ (see R. Temam [94]) or even in $L^{\infty}(0,\infty;X(\Omega))$ (see H. Fujita & T. Kato [38]). As we have mentioned above, such results of regularity have been extended for some small special initial data in the twofluids case by N. Tanaka [91] only for a force that is small in $L^p(0,\infty;X(\Omega))$ for some $p < +\infty$. The result does not cover the case of some force in $L^{\infty}(0,\infty;\mathbb{L}^{q}(\Omega))$ that does not vanish as $t \to +\infty$ in any weak sense, say for instance a force constant in time, or also the force we deal with here, namely $-\rho e_z$, whose \mathbb{L}^q norm is a constant. Indeed, in our context, the body force term is "small" in $L^{\infty}(0,\infty;\mathbb{L}^{q}(\Omega))$ as soon as the densities of the two fluids are close to each other : it suffices to replace the term of $-\rho ge_z$ by $(\rho - \rho_1)ge_z$ and to add the term ρ_1gz to the pressure p. It is of course not small in any $L^p(0,\infty;X(\Omega))$ for $p < +\infty$ since it even does not belong to such a space. However, the result by N. Tanaka suffices to show that, given some arbitrary time T, the solution remains regular on (0,T) if the initial data u_0 and the difference of densities $\delta \rho$ are both small enough.

We suspect it is possible to improve this result in the following way. It is known that we also have global regularity for two fluids in 2D under the additional assumption that the viscosity is constant all over the domain, and then no matter how large the force is (see S.N. Antontsev, A.V. Kazhikov, V.N. Monakhov [3]). In view of all these results, it sounds reasonable to believe that the following regularity result holds : in 3D, for two fluids sharing the same viscosity, under the hypothesis that the initial velocity is small and that the body force is small in some $L^{\infty}(0, \infty; X(\Omega))$, the flow remains regular for all time. To the best of our knowledge, such a result has not been proven yet. We will approach this question in a subsequent work ([41]) since it would provide a regularity result for small data in the setting we work in.

Furthermore, continuing our formal analysis of open questions that should be relevant in our context, we even believe that in the very special case we are interested in here, the regularity results can be extended. Noticing that the term $(\rho - \rho_1)ge_z$ does not modify the first energy estimate (that holds for the zero force case), one should be able to show (at least) the following property : given an arbitrary density difference $\delta \rho = \rho_2 - \rho_1$, then if the initial velocity u_0 is small enough and the initial state is not far from equilibrium, the flow remains regular for all time. Since we have chosen to focus in this study on the long time behaviour we will not present here the investigation of this question and refer the reader to [41] where we hope to settle all these regularity issues.

The bidimensional case In the bidimensional case and when the viscosity η is supposed to be a positive constant, it is proved in S.N. Antontsev, A.V. Kazhikov, V.N. Monakhov [3] that there exists a global in time regular solution (see also P.-L. Lions [65]). More precisely, we have for any time T > 0,

 $u \in L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^2(\Omega)) \cap \mathcal{C}([0,T]; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)),$

and

$$\partial_t u \in L^2((0,T) \times \Omega).$$

4.3.4 Long time behaviour

Let $(t_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be an arbitrary sequence of positive reals such that $\lim_{n \to +\infty} t_n = +\infty$. We define the sequences ρ_n and u_n by $\rho_n(x,t) = \rho(x, t + t_n)$ and $u_n(x, t) = u(x, t + t_n)$ (in the sense of distributions).

Behaviour of the velocity in the general case According to estimate (4.15), we have

$$\lim_{n \to +\infty} \int_{t_n}^{+\infty} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u(x,t)|^2 \, dx \, dt = 0,$$

therefore

$$u_n \to 0 \text{ in } L^2(0,\infty; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)) \text{ as } n \to +\infty.$$
 (4.34)

Remark 4.3 As far as we know, we cannot rigorously improve this convergence since we do not know if $t \to u(., t)$ is continuous (say with values in $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$).

If we postulate that $u \in C(0, +\infty; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$, we can show that $u \to 0$ in $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$ as $t \to +\infty$. Indeed, if we go back to (4.14) and use the fact that

$$\left|-\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}\rho z\,dx\right| = \left|-\int_{\Omega}\rho e_{z}\cdot u\,dx\right| \le C^{st}\|\rho\|_{L^{\infty}(\Omega)}\|u\|_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)} \le C^{st},$$

we may write

$$\frac{d}{dt}\frac{1}{2}\int_{\Omega}\rho u^{2} dx \leq -\int_{\Omega}|\nabla u|^{2} dx - \frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega}\rho z dx \leq C^{st}.$$

Therefore, the nonnegative function $f(t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \rho u^2 dx$ satisfies the two conditions

$$\int_{0}^{+\infty} f(t)dt < +\infty, \quad \frac{df}{dt} \le C^{st}.$$
(4.35)

It follows by a standard argument that f goes to 0 at infinity, that is

$$\lim_{t \to +\infty} \|u\|_{L^2} = 0.\diamondsuit \tag{4.36}$$

Behaviour of the velocity in the bidimensional case So far as we know, we cannot say more on the velocity than the convergence (4.34) in three dimensions. On the contrary, in two dimensions, we can go further in the argument. In this case, u is known to belong to $\mathcal{C}([0,T]; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega))$. Estimates (4.15) and (4.29) show that the right hand side of

$$\left|\frac{d}{dt}||u||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}^{2}\right| \leq ||u||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}||\partial_{t}u||_{\mathbb{L}^{2}(\Omega)}$$

is in $L^1(0,\infty)$. Thus, $||u||^2_{\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)} \in W^{1,1}(0,\infty)$ and therefore $u \to 0$ in $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$ as $t \to \infty$. Moreover, (4.28) shows that u belongs to $L^{\infty}(0,\infty; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega))$. Therefore, by interpolation between $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$ and $\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)$, we deduce that

$$u \to 0 \text{ in } \mathbb{H}^{1-\varepsilon}(\Omega) \text{ as } t \to +\infty, \forall \varepsilon > 0.$$
 (4.37)

Behaviour of the interface In view of (4.7) the sequence (ρ_n) remains in a bounded set of $L^{\infty}((0, +\infty) \times \Omega)$. Therefore there exists $\rho_{\infty} \in L^{\infty}((0, +\infty) \times \Omega)$ such that

$$\rho_n \rightharpoonup \rho_\infty \qquad \text{in } L^\infty((0, +\infty) \times \Omega) \text{ weak-} *.$$
(4.38)

We first prove that ρ_{∞} does not depend on t. Let $v \in L^2(0,\infty; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))$, we have

$$| < \partial_t \rho_n, v > | = | - < \operatorname{div} \rho_n u_n, v > | = | \int_{\Omega} \rho_n u_n . \nabla v \, dx |$$

$$\leq C^{st} || \rho_n ||_{L^{\infty}((0,T) \times \Omega)} || u_n ||_{L^2(0,T;\mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))} || v ||_{L^2(0,T;\mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))}$$

which proves in view of (4.34) that

$$\partial_t \rho_n \longrightarrow 0$$
 in $L^2(0,\infty; \mathbb{H}^{-1}(\Omega))$ as $n \to +\infty$.

Therefore, since in the sense of distributions $\partial_t \rho_n \rightharpoonup \partial_t \rho_\infty$, we deduce $\partial_t \rho_\infty = 0$.

We now prove that ρ_{∞} only depends on the third space variable z. We have

$$-\nabla p_n - \rho_n e_z = \partial_t (\rho_n u_n) + \operatorname{div} \left(\rho_n u_n \otimes u_n \right) - \Delta u_n$$

Let $v \in \mathcal{C}_0^\infty((0,\infty) \times \Omega)$,

$$\begin{aligned} | < \partial_t(\rho_n u_n), v > | &\leq ||\rho_n||_{L^{\infty}((0,\infty)\times\Omega)} ||u_n||_{L^2((0,\infty)\times\Omega)} ||\partial_t v||_{L^2((0,\infty)\times\Omega)}, \\ | < \operatorname{div}(\rho_n u_n \otimes u_n), v > | &\leq C^{st} ||\rho_n||_{L^{\infty}((0,\infty)\times\Omega)} ||u_n||_{L^2(0,\infty;\mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))}^2 ||v||_{L^{\infty}(0,\infty;\mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))}, \\ | < -\Delta u_n, v > | &\leq ||u_n||_{L^2(0,\infty;\mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))} ||v||_{L^2(0,\infty;\mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega))}, \end{aligned}$$

thus the right-hand sides of the these inequalities go to zero as $n \to \infty$ (see (4.34) and (4.38)). Therefore

$$-\nabla p_n - \rho_n e_z \longrightarrow 0$$

in the sense of distributions. Thus, $\operatorname{curl}(\rho_{\infty}e_z) = \nabla \rho_{\infty} \times e_z = 0$, which proves that $\partial_x \rho_{\infty} = \partial_y \rho_{\infty} = 0$. Therefore

$$\rho_{\infty} = \rho_{\infty}(z). \tag{4.39}$$

Finally, let us check the global mass conservation. In view of (4.38), we have for arbitrary $f \in L^1(\Omega \times (0, +\infty))$

$$\int_0^{+\infty} \int_{\Omega} \rho_n(x,t) f(x,t) \, dx \, dt \longrightarrow \int_0^{+\infty} \int_{\Omega} \rho_\infty(x) f(x,t) \, dx \, dt.$$

In particular with $f(x,t) = f(t) \in L^1(0,+\infty)$ such that $\int_0^{+\infty} f(t) dt = 1$ we have, according to (4.7)

$$\int_0^{+\infty} \int_{\Omega} \rho_n(x,t) f(t) \, dx dt = \int_0^{+\infty} f(t) \int_{\Omega} \rho_n(x,t) \, dx dt = \int_{\Omega} \rho^0(x) \, dx.$$

Thus

$$\int_{\Omega} \rho_{\infty}(x) \, dx = \int_{\Omega} \rho^{0}(x) \, dx$$

which proves the global mass conservation.

Notice that, according to (4.8), we know that meas $\{x \in \Omega, \rho_n(x) = \rho_i\} = M_i$ is independent of n. Nevertheless, we are not able to prove that meas $\{x \in \Omega, \rho_{\infty}(x) = \rho_i\} = M_i$. Indeed, to show this property, we need to prove that for any $\beta \in C^1([0, \infty), \mathbb{R})$

$$\int_{\Omega} \beta(\rho_n(x,t)) \, dx \longrightarrow \int_{\Omega} \beta(\rho_\infty(x)) \, dx,$$

which seems not possible (so far as we know) in view of the weak convergence of ρ_n .

Therefore we cannot prove that homogeneization does not appear in the limit. In other words there may exist some parts of Ω where ρ_{∞} has values between ρ_1 and ρ_2 . All that we know is that these areas consist of horizontal layers (possibly infinitely thin).

Remark 4.4 If for some sequence $t_n \to +\infty$ we have $\rho(t_n, \cdot) \to \rho_{\infty}(\cdot)$ almost everywhere in Ω , then it is possible to show, using Theorem 2.4 of [65], that

$$\forall T < \infty, \forall p < \infty, \lim_{n \to \infty} \sup_{t \in [0,T]} |\rho(t+t_n, \cdot) - \rho_{\infty}(\cdot)|_{L^p} = 0, \qquad (4.40)$$

which therefore prevents homogeneization.

This shows our claim of Section 4.1, and in view of Section 4.2.1, we cannot say more on ρ_{∞} .

Proposition 8

In the nonlinear case without surface tension, a solution (ρ, u) satisfying the estimates (4.7), (4.15), (4.16) has the following behaviour as time goes to infinity :

(i) The velocity field u goes to 0 in $\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)$ in the "weak" sense of (4.34).

If we postulate that $u \in \mathcal{C}(0, \infty; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega))$ and that (4.33) holds then u goes to 0 in $\mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)$.

If $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ then $u \in \mathcal{C}(0, \infty; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega))$ and u goes to 0 in $\mathbb{H}^{1-\varepsilon}(\Omega), \forall \varepsilon > 0$ as $t \to +\infty$.

(ii) The density ρ goes to ρ_{∞} in the sense of (4.38) with $\rho_{\infty} = \rho_{\infty}(z)$. In other words, the "interface" tends in a weak sense (and up to an extraction in time) to one or several horizontal planes. Homogeneization may appear.

(iii) We are able to exhibit an infinity of steady solutions $(u = 0, \rho_{\infty})$ whose energy is arbitrarily close to the minimal energy.

Remark 4.5 While we do not know much about ρ_{∞} , it is worth mentionning that, in 2 dimensions, the topology (say number of bubbles to fix the ideas) is preserved by the flow (see [26], [27]).

Remark 4.6 In the spirit of Remark 4.2, we would like to indicate here that we believe that under the additional assumption that the data are small (at least initial velocity and difference of densities, but initial velocity is likely to be enough), some better regularity on the flow is available. It might also improve the quality of the convergence to zero of u (as it is well know in the one-fluid case, see Section 1.1. above). Such regularity issues will be investigated in [41]. Once more, we emphasize we have chosen to deal here with any initial velocity, and therefore to state the most general result we can prove with the weakest assumptions.

4.4 The nonlinear case with surface tension

4.4.1 A priori estimates

First of all, notice that the transport equation yields the same properties (4.7) and (4.8) as in the case without surface tension.

$$\rho \in L^{\infty}(\Omega \times (0,\infty)). \tag{4.41}$$

Let us now establish the energy estimate, analogous to the estimate (4.14). It is obvious that multiplying the Navier-Stokes equation (4.4) by u and integrating over the domain lead to the following assertion

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{1}{2}\int_{\Omega}\rho u^{2}\,dx+\int_{\Omega}\rho z\,dx\right)+\int_{\Omega}|\nabla u|^{2}\,dx=<\mathcal{T},u>=\int_{\Sigma}\mathcal{C}u\cdot n,$$

where the curvature C is oriented along the unit normal n.

We recall that we assume for ease of notation that $\rho_2 - \rho_1 = 1$, thus $n\delta_{\Sigma} = \nabla \rho / |\nabla \rho| = \nabla \rho$. To compute the right-hand side, at least formally, we suppose that u is smooth enough in order to have $\partial_t \rho = 0$ on $\partial \Omega$. Thus

$$\int_{\Sigma} \mathcal{C}u \cdot n \, d\sigma = -\int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} \, (\nabla\rho)u \cdot \nabla\rho \, dx = -\int_{\Omega} \partial_t \nabla\rho \cdot \nabla\rho \, dx = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla\rho|^2 \, dx.$$

Denoting by $L(\Sigma)$ the measure of the interface Σ , we have formally $L(\Sigma) = \int_{\Sigma} d\sigma = \int_{\Sigma} |n|^2 d\sigma = \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \rho|^2 dx$. Thus the energy estimate reads

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{1}{2}\int_{\Omega}\rho u^2\,dx + \int_{\Omega}\rho z\,dx + \frac{1}{2}L(\Sigma)\right) + \int_{\Omega}|\nabla u|^2\,dx = 0.$$
(4.42)

From this energy equality, it is straighforward to derive the same estimate as in the nonlinear case without surface tension, namely

$$u \in L^2(0,\infty; \mathbb{H}^1_0(\Omega)) \cap L^\infty(0,\infty; \mathbb{L}^2(\Omega)).$$

$$(4.43)$$

In addition we obtain here

$$\rho \in L^{\infty}(0,\infty; BV(\Omega)). \tag{4.44}$$

4.4.2 Questions of existence and regularity

Let us begin with a short overview of the state of the art concerning the existence of solutions in this setting with surface tension. For the case of one fluid with a free surface, local in time existence results can be found in G. Allain [1], V.A. Solonnikov [85], global in time existence results for small initial data and $\vec{f} \equiv \vec{0}$ appeared in V.A. Solonnikov [88] (bounded case), J.T. Beale [7] (unbounded case), and also in A. Tani & N. Tanaka [93], and for small initial data and f not necessarily zero in A. Tani [92]. For the two fluids

case, local in time existence of strong solutions is due to I.V. Denisova [23] and I.V. Denisova, V.A. Solonnikov [24], global in time existence for small data is due to V.A. Solonnikov [86] and also N. Tanaka [91] (for a special initial condition, see above).

As far as we know, no existence result of global weak solution has been established for the multifluids Navier-Stokes equations with surface tension. Thus, we need to assume in the sequel that there exist $(u(x, t), \rho(x, t))$ that are solutions to (4.4) in a formal sense, and that satisfy the *a priori* estimates (4.41), (4.43), (4.44). This regularity implies that $\rho \in \mathcal{C}(0, T; L^p(\Omega))$ for all $1 \leq p < \infty$. Such an assumption seems to us reasonable in view of the manipulations made above and in view of the regularity proved in the case without surface tension. Henceforth, we deal with a solution satisfying all these assumptions.

4.4.3 Longtime behaviour

As in Section 4.3, we define the sequences ρ_n and u_n by $\rho_n(x,t) = \rho(x,t+t_n)$ and $u_n(x,t) = u(x,t+t_n)$ when $(t_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is an arbitrary sequence of positive reals such that $\lim_{n \to +\infty} t_n = +\infty$.

Behaviour of the velocity The behaviour of u_n is the same as in the case without surface tension, namely

$$u_n \longrightarrow 0$$
 in $L^2(0, \infty; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega))$ as $n \to +\infty$.

Behaviour of the interface In the sequel, T > 0 is fixed. We now show that the presence of surface tension allows us to improve the convergence (4.38) of ρ_n , more precisely we prove that this sequence is in a compact set of $L^p(\Omega \times (0,T))$ for any $p \ge 1$.

Estimates (4.41) and (4.44) show that ρ_n is in a bounded set of the space $L^{\infty}(0,T; BV(\Omega) \cap L^{\infty}(\Omega))$. Noticing that $L^{\infty}(\Omega) \hookrightarrow L^q(\Omega)$ for any $q \ge 1$ and the space of bounded measures $\mathcal{M}_b(\Omega) \hookrightarrow W^{-r,s'}(\Omega)$, with $s' = \frac{s}{s-1}$ for any r, s such that rs > 3, we deduce that $\forall \theta, 0 \le \theta \le 1$ (see J. Bergh, J. Löfström [11] or J.-L. Lions, E. Magenes [63]),

$$L^{\infty}(\Omega) \cap BV(\Omega) \hookrightarrow [L^{q}(\Omega); W^{1-r,s'}(\Omega)]_{\theta} = W^{(1-r)\theta, \frac{1}{\theta/q+(1-\theta)/s'}}(\Omega).$$

For example, with q = 6, r = 2/3, s = 6 and $\theta = 1/2$ we have

$$L^{\infty}(\Omega) \cap BV(\Omega) \hookrightarrow H^{1/6}(\Omega).$$

Thus the sequence ρ_n is bounded in $L^2(0,T; H^{1/6}(\Omega))$.

Moreover, the equation $\partial_t \rho_n = -\operatorname{div}(\rho_n u_n)$ together with estimates (4.43) and (4.41) show that $\partial_t \rho_n$ is bounded in $L^2(0,T; H^{-1}(\Omega))$.

Thus, ρ_n is bounded in $L^2(0,T; H^{1/6}(\Omega)) \cap H^1(0,T; H^{-1}(\Omega))$. Interpolating between these two spaces, we have for $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$

$$[L^{2}(0,T;H^{1/6}(\Omega)),H^{1}(0,T;H^{-1}(\Omega))]_{\theta} \hookrightarrow H^{1-\theta}(0,T;H^{7\theta/6-1}(\Omega)).$$

Choosing $6/7 < \theta < 1$, we deduce that ρ_n is bounded in $H^{\beta}(0,T; H^{\gamma}(\Omega))$ with $\beta > 0$ and $\gamma > 0$. Therefore, $(\rho_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a compact set of (for example) $L^1(\Omega \times (0,T))$. Since the sequence is bounded in $L^p(\Omega \times (0,T))$, $\forall p \ge 1$, we deduce that $(\rho_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a compact set of $L^p(\Omega \times (0,T))$. Therefore, there exists an extraction of $(\rho_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that

$$\rho_{n'} \longrightarrow \rho_{\infty}$$
 in $L^p(\Omega \times (0,T)), \forall p \ge 1$ as $n' \to +\infty$.

Then, we can prove by the arguments used in Section 4.3.4 that $\rho_{\infty}(x,t) = \rho_{\infty}(x)$ and the conservation of the global mass.

We next show that there exists a sequence $(s_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ such that $s_n \in [0, T]$ and $\lim_{n \to +\infty} \sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||\rho_n(\cdot, t + s_n) - \rho_\infty(\cdot)||_{L^p(\Omega)} = 0, \forall p \ge 1.$

For ease of notation, we define $X_n(t) = ||\rho_n(t)||_{L^p(\Omega)}$ and $X_{\infty} = ||\rho_{\infty}||_{L^p(\Omega)}$. We recall that ρ is supposed to be in $C(0, \infty; L^p(\Omega))$, thus $X_n \in C(0, \infty)$. Moreover $X_n \to X_\infty$ as $n \to +\infty$ for the strong topology of $L^p(0, T)$. Thus, there exists a sequence $(s_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ in [0, T] such that

$$\lim_{n \to +\infty} X_n(s_n) = X_{\infty}.$$
(4.45)

Then, we denote by $(\tilde{u}_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ and $(\tilde{\rho}_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ the sequences defined by $\tilde{u}_n(x,t) = u_n(x,t+s_n)$ and $\tilde{\rho}_n(x,t) = \rho_n(x,t+s_n)$. Assertion (4.45) proves the convergence of $\tilde{\rho}_n(\cdot,t=0)$ to $\rho_{\infty}(\cdot)$ as $n \to +\infty$ for the strong topology of $L^p(\Omega)$.

Gathering the previous results, we have : $0 \leq \tilde{\rho}_n \leq C$, $\partial_t \tilde{\rho}_n + \operatorname{div}(\tilde{\rho}_n \tilde{u}_n) = 0$, div $\tilde{u}_n = 0$, $\tilde{\rho}_n|_{t=0} \rightarrow \rho_\infty$ in $L^p(\Omega)$ and $\tilde{u}_n \rightarrow 0$ in $L^2(0,T; \mathbb{H}^1(\Omega))$. We deduce from these properties (see P.-L. Lions [65] Theorem 2.4) that $\tilde{\rho}_n$ converges to ρ_∞ in $\mathcal{C}([0,T], L^p(\Omega))$.

In other words, we have shown that, for T > 0, $p \ge 1$ and for any sequences $(t_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}, t_n \to +\infty$, there exists $(s_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}, s_n \in [0, T]$ such that, up to an extraction,

$$\lim_{n \to +\infty} \sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||\rho(\cdot, t + t_n + s_n) - \rho_{\infty}(\cdot)||_{L^q(\Omega)} = 0.$$
(4.46)

We finally show that no homogeneization appears. Indeed, for any $\beta \in \mathcal{C}^1([0,\infty),\mathbb{R})$ we have then

$$\int_{\Omega} \beta(\rho_n(x,t)) \, dx \longrightarrow \int_{\Omega} \beta(\rho_\infty(x)) \, dx,$$

thus by regularization we obtain that

$$\max \{x \in \Omega, \rho_{\infty}(x) = \rho_i\} = \max \{x \in \Omega, \rho(x, t) = \rho_i\}$$
(4.47)

which is a constant of the evolution.

We collect the results obtained in this nonlinear case with surface tension in the following final proposition.

Proposition 9

In the nonlinear case with surface tension, assuming the existence of a solution regular enough to give a sense to the surface tension term and satisfying the a priori estimates (4.41), (4.43) and (4.44), the behaviour of u, ρ as time goes to infinity is the following :

(i) The velocity field u goes to 0 in $\mathbb{H}^1(\Omega)$ in the same sense as in the case without surface tension (see (4.34)).

(ii) The density ρ goes to ρ_{∞} in a stronger sense than in the case without surface tension (see (4.46)). The density ρ_{∞} consists only of zones of densities ρ_1 and ρ_2 (see (4.47)), homogeneization being therefore excluded. In addition, ρ_{∞} is such that the quantity $z - \operatorname{div} n$ is constant on each connected component of the interface between zones of densities ρ_1 and ρ_2 .

(iii) We do not know whether the limit interface is unique nor connected. Moreover, we are able to exhibit an infinity of steady solutions $(u = 0, \rho_{\infty})$ whose energy is arbitrarily close to the minimal energy.

5 Final Remarks

We would like to emphasize that most of the above analysis in the purely gravitational case is likely to be extended *mutandis mutandis* to some Magnetohydrodynamics equations, provided the boundary conditions are convenient. The situation we have in mind is the following one : the right-hand side of the two-fluids Navier-Stokes equations contains a Lorentz force term $\operatorname{curl} B \times B$ where the evolution of the magnetic field B follows an equation of parabolic type derived from the Maxwell system under convenient simplifying assumptions. In addition, the boundary conditions on the magnetic field are assumed to decay with time. The system under consideration is therefore

$$\partial_t \rho + \operatorname{div} (\rho u) = 0,$$

$$\partial_t (\rho u) + \operatorname{div} (\rho u \otimes u) - \operatorname{div} (2\eta d(u)) + \nabla p = -\rho g \vec{e}_z + \operatorname{curl} B \times B,$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0,$$

$$\partial_t B + \operatorname{curl} \left(\frac{1}{\sigma} \operatorname{curl} B\right) = \operatorname{curl} (u \times B),$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0.$$

The well-posedness of this system has been established in Chapter 2 (global in time existence of weak solutions, see also [43]), and in B. Desjardins & C. Le Bris [27] (regularity results in the bidimensional case under convenient assumptions on the viscosities and on the electrical conductivities). We intend to present results on the long time behaviour of this system in a subsequent work (see [42]).

Partie III

Etudes numériques

Chapitre 5

Spurious velocities in the steady flow of an incompressible fluid subjected to external forces

Le contenu de ce chapitre est le résultat d'un travail effectué en collaboration avec Claude Le Bris et Michel Bercovier. Il est paru dans International Journal for Numerical Methods in Fluids en Octobre 1997.

1 Introduction

We are interested here in the steady state of an incompressible homogeneous fluid in presence of a body force. This force may result from a coupling (e.g. magnetohydrodynamic equations or Boussinesq equations) or may be a given external force. For the sake of simplicity we shall only consider here the latter case.

When this force is the gradient of a potential, namely $f = \nabla \Phi$, and when the velocity obeys to the no-slip condition on the boundary of a fixed domain, we expect to obtain a fluid everywhere at rest. However, as will be seen, numerical simulations which do not ensure rigorously div u = 0 may lead to a non-zero velocity.

We give a few examples of this phenomenon in Section 2 and we propose a first explanation in Section 3. The deformation of the mesh plays a role in the observed inaccuracies, but it is not their unique cause.

With a general force $(f = \operatorname{curl} g + \nabla \Phi)$, we have noticed that the "gradient part" may also produce a velocity field which pollutes the physical flow. We give an example of this in Section 2.4. For the practical applications, it is worth noticing that this phenomenon may *a fortiori* induce important numerical errors in coupled problems.

Section 4 is devoted to a projection method which eliminates the spurious speeds when $f = \nabla \Phi$ (this method could easily be extended to the case of a force $f = \nabla \Phi + \operatorname{curl} g$ when Φ is a priori known). In Section 5, we extend this method in order to reduce the inaccuracy for any f whose decomposition is not a priori known.

Let us note that a method close to ours has already been suggested by O. Besson *et al.* in [14] for a penalty formulation for the pressure. Nevertheless, our presentation allows us to establish a link between the spurious speeds and the deformation of the grid (*cf.* Appendix A, p. 154). More precisely, we explain why spurious speeds do not appear on a right mesh with some particular forces, and we also show that they do appear with some forces even on a right mesh. Moreover, we give an error estimate (*cf.* Appendix B, p. 158) which proves that our method improves the results on any meshes.

The numerical simulations are performed with the FEM code FIDAP¹ Version 7.52 and with a home-made code. We use the pairs Q1/P0 and Q2/P1 of finite elements spaces to approximate the velocity and the pressure. It is well-known that the pair Q1/P0 does not rigorously satisfy the Ladyzenskaia-Babuska-Brezzi condition and yields a spurious pressure (see V. Girault and P.-A. Raviart [46] or M.D. Gunzburger [49] for instance). Nevertheless, the problem presented here is independent of this fact and occurs also with the elements Q2/P1 which satisfy the LBB condition.

2 Some numerical experiments

2.1 A free surface problem

Our initial motivation was to improve a 2D free surface algorithm. Two incompressible fluids separated by an interface are subjected to a force $f = \nabla \Phi_0$, with $\Phi_0(x, y) = \frac{5}{2}y^2 - 10x$. Their densities are 2300 kg/m³ and 2150 kg/m³, their viscosity 1.1 m²/s and 2.5 m²/s. We solve the Navier-Stokes equations in a box with homogeneous Dirichlet boundary conditions on three sides and u.n = 0 on the fourth side. The steady state interface is a curve $\Phi(x, y) = C$ where C is a constant determined by the conservation of volume. The theoretical velocity is zero. Numerically, the position of the interface is good, but we notice the appearance of a vortex (0.2 m/s) in each fluid (figure 5.1).

In order to understand the problem raised above, we simplify the experiment : in the following three tests, we just consider a single fluid in a closed

¹FIDAP is a trademark of Fluid Dynamics International, Inc.



FIG. 5.1: Spurious velocity (0.2 m/s) in two immiscible fluids submitted to $f = \nabla \Phi_0$ with $\Phi_0(x, y) = \frac{5}{2}y^2 - 10x$. On the left hand side : the mesh, on the right hand side : the velocity field. This test is performed with FIDAP V7.52 with the Q1/P0 pair of finite elements.

box Ω with various given forces and we solve the linear Stokes equations :

$$-\eta \Delta u + \nabla p = \rho f \qquad \text{on } \Omega \tag{2.1}$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0 \qquad \text{on } \Omega \tag{2.2}$$

$$u = 0 \quad \text{on } \partial\Omega \quad (2.3)$$

We set $\eta {=} 0.01 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ and $\rho {=} 1 \text{ kg/m}^3$ in the sequel.

2.2 A fluid subjected to a constant force f

We assume f is constant and equal to (100, 100) on Ω . In Figure 5.2, we use Q1/P0 elements and we see that no velocity appears on a right grid (maximum about 0.1e-11 m/s) whereas the velocity reaches 0.83 m/s on bent elements. In Figure 5.3, very similar results are obtained with Q2/P1 elements.

This suggests that the deformation of the grid plays a role in the inaccuracy on the velocity, and may explain the difficulty mentioned in Section 2.1 in the case of a free surface (where elements are bent, since the mesh follows the interface in our computation).



FIG. 5.2: Fluid in presence of a constant force with the Q1/P0 elements. The influence of the shape of the mesh is striking : on the left hand side, maximum speed is 0.1e-11m/s, whereas it is 0.83 m/s on the right hand side.



FIG. 5.3: Same test as in Figure 5.2 but with Q2/P1 elements. On the left hand side, maximum speed is 0.2e-11m/s. On the right hand side : 0.3m/s.



FIG. 5.4: Fluid in presence of $f = \nabla \Phi_1$. On the rectangular mesh, the speed reaches 0.76e-3m/s. On the bent mesh, 0.19e-1m/s. This case is presented with the Q1/P0 pair of finite elements. We obtain similar results with the Q2/P1 elements.

2.3 A fluid subjected to a force $f = \nabla \Phi$

In this test, we use Q1/P0 element and the force f is equal to $\nabla \Phi_1$ with $\Phi_1(x, y) = x^5 + x^4y^3 + x^2y + y^4$. The right-hand side of Figure 5.4 shows that spurious speeds appear on a bent mesh (maximum : 0.19e-1 m/s) but one may see on the left-hand side that they also appear on a grid whose elements are squares (maximum : 0.76e-3m/s). Therefore the deformation of the mesh clearly makes worse the accuracy on the velocity, but imprecise results may also appear on rectangular elements.

Similar results were obtained with Q2/P1 elements.

2.4 One fluid subjected to a force $f = \nabla \Phi + \operatorname{curl} g$

The two previous tests deal with a fluid at rest. We now build an experiment where the force is the sum of a gradient part and a solenoidal part, thereby creating a non-zero velocity :

$$f = \nabla \Phi + \operatorname{curl} g. \tag{2.4}$$

In order to enforce the incompressibility and the no-slip condition on the boundary, we set $g = g_0$ with g_0 built as follows :

$$A = k[xy(H-x)(W-y)]^2, \qquad (2.5)$$


FIG. 5.5: Fluid in presence of $f = \nabla \Phi_0 + \operatorname{curl} g_0$ on *rectangular* elements. Left hand side : velocity field. Right hand side : comparison between the theoretical first component of the velocity and the numerical one on the straight line y = 0.4. Finite elements : Q1/P0.



FIG. 5.6: Same situation as in Figure 5.5, but on a distorted mesh.

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FIG. 5.7: Same situation as in Figure 5.6 (distorted mesh), but with Q2/P1 elements. While the Q2/P1 approximation is better than the Q1/P0, significant inaccuracies remain.

$$u = \operatorname{curl} A, \tag{2.6}$$

$$g_0 = \operatorname{curl} u, \tag{2.7}$$

where H and W are respectively the height and the width of the 2D box and k is a constant. For the numerical computations, H = W = 1, k = 0.1 and $\Phi(x, y) = \Phi_0(x, y) = \frac{5}{2}y^2 - 10x$.

Note that the velocity u can be analytically computed with (2.6) and $p = \Phi$ (up to an additive constant).

Figure 5.5 shows the velocity field on a mesh with rectangular elements (left hand side) and a comparison between the theoretical first component of the velocity and the numerical one on the straight line y = 0.4 of Ω : the result is very precise (it is difficult to distinguish between the two curves). The same test computed on a distorted mesh is presented in Figure 5.6 with Q1/P0 elements and in Figure 5.7 with Q2/P1 elements : the flow is perturbated in both cases.

Remark 2.1 It is worth noticing that when $\Phi = 0$ (i.e. the force is divergence free), the numerical velocity is very close to the theoretical one on both rectangular and bent elements. Thus the deformation of the grid seems to affect the velocity essentially in presence of a non divergence free force.

2.5 Other experiments

Let us briefly mention other experiments which lead to analogous conclusions.

The flow u defined by (2.6) is the solution of the Navier-Stokes equations for the force $f = \nabla \Phi_0 + \operatorname{curl} g_0 + u \cdot \nabla u$. If we compute the numerical solution in this non-linear setting, we observe that spurious velocities appear again on a bent mesh.

Likewise, they appear in many other experiments that we do not detail here and that involve other boundary conditions, a three dimensional box, a transient flow.

Let us also notice that the inaccuracy seems to increase with the Reynolds number and to decrease with the typical size of the mesh.

3 An attempt at explanation

Let us recall first of all why the fluid is at rest in the presence of $f = \nabla \Phi$.

For $m \geq 0$, we denote as usual by $H^m(\Omega)$ as the Sobolev space

$$H^{m}(\Omega) = \{ u \in L^{2}(\Omega); D^{\gamma}u \in L^{2}(\Omega), \forall \gamma, |\gamma| \leq m \}$$

where $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \gamma_3)$ is a multi-index and $|\gamma| = \gamma_1 + \gamma_2 + \gamma_3$. For $m \ge 1$, $H_0^m(\Omega)$ is the subspace of $H^m(\Omega)$ consisting of functions vanishing on $\partial\Omega$. We denote by $L_0^2(\Omega)$ the space

$$L_0^2(\Omega) = \{q \in L^2(\Omega); \int_\Omega q \, dx = 0\}$$

We shall suppose in the sequel that $f \in L^2(\Omega)^2$. The Stokes problem (2.1)-(2.3) may be formulated in a variational form : find $u \in H_0^1(\Omega)^2$ and $p \in L_0^2(\Omega)$ such that

$$\begin{cases} \eta \int_{\Omega} \nabla u \cdot \nabla v \, dx - \int_{\Omega} p \operatorname{div} v \, dx &= \int_{\Omega} f \cdot v \, dx, \\ \int_{\Omega} q \operatorname{div} u \, dx &= 0 \end{cases}$$
(3.1)

for all $v \in H_0^1(\Omega)^2$ and $q \in L_0^2(\Omega)$.

In particular, taking v = u, we have

$$\eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 \, dx = \int_{\Omega} f \cdot u \, dx = \int_{\Omega} \nabla \Phi \cdot u \, dx = -\int_{\Omega} \Phi \operatorname{div} u \, dx = 0, \qquad (3.2)$$

which shows that u = 0 almost everywhere in Ω , i.e. the fluid is at rest.

Let us notice that the crucial point of this proof is that $\operatorname{div} u = 0$ or, more precisely, that $\nabla \Phi$ is orthogonal (in $L^2(\Omega)$) to u as soon as $\operatorname{div} u = 0$ in Ω and u.n = 0 on $\partial \Omega$. As we recall hereafter, this property does not hold for the discrete problem.

Following the presentation of V. Girault and P.-A. Raviart [46], we introduce for each h > 0, W_h and Q_h two finite-dimensional spaces such that $W_h \subset H^1(\Omega)^2$ and $Q_h \subset L^2(\Omega)$. The latter is assumed to contain the constant functions. We set :

$$X_{h} = W_{h} \cap H_{0}^{1}(\Omega)^{2} = \{ v_{h} \in W_{h}; v_{h} |_{\partial \Omega} = 0 \},$$
$$M_{h} = Q_{h} \cap L_{0}^{2}(\Omega) = \left\{ q_{h} \in Q_{h}; \int_{\Omega} q_{h} \, dx = 0 \right\}.$$

The variational problem (3.1) is then approximated by : find $u_h \in X_h$ and $p_h \in M_h$ such that

$$\begin{cases} \eta \int_{\Omega} \nabla u_h \cdot \nabla v_h \, dx - \int_{\Omega} p_h \operatorname{div} v_h \, dx &= \int_{\Omega} f \cdot v_h \, dx \\ \int_{\Omega} q_h \operatorname{div} u_h \, dx &= 0 \end{cases}$$
(3.3)

for all $v_h \in X_h$ and $q_h \in M_h$. In the case of $f = \nabla \Phi$, we obtain as in the continuous case :

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla u_h|^2 \, dx = -\frac{1}{\eta} \int_{\Omega} \Phi \operatorname{div} u_h \, dx \tag{3.4}$$

but now the right-hand side of (3.4) is not necessarily zero since Φ does not belong to M_h in general. Thus, the approximated velocity is not zero, which may explain the inaccuracies observed in the numerical computations of Subsections 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3. Moreover, equation (3.4) shows that the approximated velocity increases when the viscosity η decreases which has been noticed in the experiments.

Let us note that the above considerations do not explain the influence of the grid. Distorted elements are known to produce inaccuracies (see [62]) but we are unfortunately not able to derive here a precise error estimate linking the spurious speeds together with the deformation of the mesh.

Nevertheless, we propose now a way to avoid spurious velocities when $f = \nabla \Phi$ which will enable us to understand why some results are much better on rectangular elements (at least with some potentials).

4 A method to avoid spurious speeds when $f = \nabla \Phi$

In the following developments, we shall suppose, without loss of generality, that $\int_{\Omega} \Phi \, dx = 0$. The potentials Φ_0 and Φ_1 of the previous section can easily be changed to satisfy this property.

In order to obtain a zero velocity field when $f = \nabla \Phi$, we suggest the following projection method :

First step : We compute $\Pi_h \Phi$, the orthogonal projection in $L^2(\Omega)$ of Φ onto M_h . In other words, we search $\Pi_h \Phi \in M_h$ such that :

$$\int_{\Omega} \Pi_h \Phi q_h \, dx = \int_{\Omega} \Phi q_h \, dx \tag{4.1}$$

for all $q_h \in M_h$.

Second step : We replace (3.3) by this alternative formulation of the Stokes problem : find $u_h \in X_h$ and $p_h \in M_h$ such that

$$\begin{cases} \eta \int_{\Omega} \nabla u_h . \nabla v_h \, dx - \int_{\Omega} p_h \operatorname{div} v_h \, dx = -\int_{\Omega} \Pi_h \Phi \operatorname{div} v_h \, dx \\ \int_{\Omega} q_h \operatorname{div} u_h \, dx = 0 \end{cases}$$
(4.2)

for all $v_h \in X_h$ and $q_h \in M_h$.

Thus we have

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla u_h|^2 \, dx = -\frac{1}{\eta} \int_{\Omega} \Pi_h \Phi \operatorname{div} u_h \, dx = 0 \tag{4.3}$$

since $\Pi_h \Phi \in M_h$. Therefore $u_h = 0$.

		Classical meth.	Projection meth.
Experiment 2.2	Rectangular elem.	0.1e-11	0.08 e-11
(f = cste)	Distorted elem.	0.83	0.2 e-11
Experiment 2.3	Rectangular elem.	$0.76\mathrm{e} extsf{-}3$	0.7 e-12
$(f = \nabla \Phi_1)$	Distorted elem.	0.17e-1	0.2e-12

TAB. 5.1: Maximum velocities (m/s) with the classical method and the projection method when $f = \nabla \Phi$ with the Q1/P0 pair of finite elements.

		Classical meth.	Projection meth.
Experiment 2.2	Rectangular elem.	0.2e-11	0.2e-11
(f = cste)	Distorted elem.	0.3	0.5 e-8
Experiment 2.3	Rectangular elem.	0.4e-3	0.1e-11
$(f = \nabla \Phi_1)$	Distorted elem.	0.14e-1	0.3 e-10

TAB. 5.2: Same case as in Table 5.1 with the Q2/P1 pair of finite elements.

We have tested this method (with a home-made code) in the experiments of Sections 2.2 and 2.3 : the spurious velocities disappear on both a rectangular and a distorted mesh (see Table 5.1 for the Q1/P0 elements and Table 5.2 for the Q2/P1 elements).

We are now able to explain why spurious speeds do not appear on rectangular elements with the potentials Φ_0 and Φ_1 of experiments 2.2 and 2.4, at least for the Q1/P0 pair of finite elements spaces. For this purpose, let us compare

$$\int_{\Omega} f \cdot v_j \, dx = -\int_{\Omega} \Phi \mathrm{div} \, v_j \, dx$$

with

$$-\int_{\Omega} \Pi_h \Phi \mathrm{div} \, v_j \, dx$$

where v_j denotes the velocity shape function (Q1) relative to node j. Let us consider the four elements T_k , k = 1, ..., 4 around the node j (see Figure 5.10). When the elements are *identical rectangles* whose sides are parallel to the coordinates axes, we establish in Appendix A (p. 154) that these two integrals are equal, for each j, whenever the following property holds :

$$\begin{cases} \sum_{k=1}^{4} (-1)^k \int_{T_k} (x - x_k^c) \Phi(x, y) \, dx dy &= 0, \\ \sum_{k=1}^{4} (-1)^k \int_{T_k} (y - y_k^c) \Phi(x, y) \, dx dy &= 0, \end{cases}$$

$$(4.4)$$

where (x_k^c, y_k^c) are the coordinates of the centre C_k of T_k .

In particular, (4.4) holds for any $\Phi(x, y) = \Psi_1(x) + \Psi_2(y) + \beta(x, y)$, where Ψ_1 and Ψ_2 denote two arbitrary functions and β is an arbitrary bilinear application.

Thus, on rectangular elements, for potentials of the above form, it is equivalent to implement $\int_{\Omega} f v_j dx$ or $-\int_{\Omega} \prod_h \Phi \operatorname{div} v_j dx$ with the Q1/P0 elements. Therefore, in this particular cases, the traditional system (3.1) leads to the same calculus as the system (4.2) (which yields zero velocities, as proved above). This explains the good results obtained on a rectangular mesh for a simple force like in experiment 2.2. On the contrary, the potential $\Phi_1(x, y) = x^5 + x^4y^3 + x^2y + y^4$ of the experiments 2.3 does not satisfy (4.4), and we indeed check that it yields a wrong velocity even on rectangular elements.

In the case of gravity, no spurious speeds appear on a right grid with the Q2/P1 elements, since the potential of the force belongs to the pressure space. Note that it is no longer true on a distorted mesh.

5 Extension to the general case

The method presented in the previous section leads to very good results when f is the gradient of a known potential Φ . It can be straightforwardly extended to the case $f = \nabla \Phi + \operatorname{curl} g$ when Φ and g are given. The purpose of this last section is to extend this method to treat the case of any force f whose decomposition into a gradient and a solenoidal part is unknown.

First step : Let Y_h be a finite dimensional space such that $Y_h \subset H^1(\Omega)$ (in practice we can take $Y_h = X_h$). We solve the following problem in order to compute an approximated gradient part of f: find $\Phi_h \in Y_h$ such that

$$\int_{\Omega} \nabla \Phi_h . \nabla \psi_h \, dx = \int_{\Omega} f . \nabla \psi_h \, dx \tag{5.1}$$

for all $\psi_h \in Y_h$.

Second step : We compute $\Pi_h \Phi_h \in M_h$ such that :

$$\int_{\Omega} \Pi_h \Phi_h q_h \, dx = \int_{\Omega} \Phi_h q_h \, dx \tag{5.2}$$

for all $q_h \in M_h$.

Third step : Finally, we solve the Stokes problem as follows : find $u_h \in X_h$ and $p \in M_h$ such that

$$\begin{cases} \eta \int_{\Omega} \nabla u_h \cdot \nabla v_h \, dx - \int_{\Omega} p_h \operatorname{div} v_h \, dx &= \int_{\Omega} (f - \nabla \Phi_h) \cdot v_h \, dx \\ - \int_{\Omega} \Pi_h \Phi_h \operatorname{div} v_h \, dx &= 0 \end{cases}$$
(5.3)

for all $v_h \in X_h$ and $q_h \in M_h$.

Remark 5.1 Note that $Y_h \subset H^1(\Omega)$ (in practice Φ_h is approximated in the same space as the velocity), thus the calculus of $\nabla \Phi_h$ is consistent.

Remark 5.2 When $div f \in L^2(\Omega)$, the problem solved in the first step is the approximated variational formulation of

$$\begin{cases} \Delta \Phi &= \operatorname{div} f \quad \text{on } \Omega \\ \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n} &= f.n \quad \text{on } \partial \Omega. \end{cases}$$

Let us check what happens when $f = \nabla \Phi$. We recall that the method of Section 4 yields a zero velocity field. Unfortunately, it is not the case here. More precisely we have :

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla u_h|^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{\eta} \int_{\Omega} (f - \nabla \Phi_h) . u_h \, dx \tag{5.4}$$

		Classical meth.	Projection meth.
			for arbitrary f
Experiment 2.2	Rectangular elem.	0.1e-11	0.1e-11
(f = cste)	Distorted elem.	0.83	0.2e-11
Experiment 2.3	Rectangular elem.	0.76e-3	0.19e-5
$(f = \nabla \Phi_1)$	Distorted elem.	0.17e-1	0.4e-3

TAB. 5.3: Maximum velocities (m/s) with the classical method and the projection method for arbitrary f with the Q1/P0 pair of finite elements.

		Classical meth.	Projection meth.
			for arbitrary f
Experiment 2.2	Rectangular elem.	0.9e-12	0.44e-11
(f = cste)	Distorted elem.	0.3	0.14e-10
Experiment 2.3	Rectangular elem.	0.4e-3	0.7e-7
$(f = \nabla \Phi_1)$	Distorted elem.	0.14e-1	0.25 e-4

TAB. 5.4: Same case as in Table 5.3 but with the Q2/P1 pair of finite elements.

Nevertheless, we prove in Appendix B (p. 158) that this estimate is better than (3.4) and the numerical results show hereafter that this method actually improves the accuracy in the experiments 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4.

Tables 5.3 and 5.4 show the results obtained when $f = \nabla \Phi$ (but of course Φ is not *a priori* known) with the Q1/P0 and Q2/P1 elements. Note that they are less precise than with the method of section 4 (especially for experiment 2.3) but still better than with the classical method.

Figure 5.8 shows the results obtained with the force $f = \operatorname{curl} g_0 + \nabla \Phi_0$ of experiment 2.4 on a distorted mesh (with g_0 and Φ_0 not a priori known by the code). Note that the computed velocity is very close to the theoretical one whereas the classical method gives a very bad flow on the same mesh (Figure 5.6 and 5.7). As previously, elements Q2/P1 and elements Q1/P0 give similar results (though Q2/P1 is of course slightly better).

Tables 5.5 and 5.6 show the dependence of $||u_h||_{L^2(\Omega)^2}$ with h in the case $f = \nabla \Phi_1$ on rectangular elements. In the case of the Q1/P0 elements (resp. Q2/P1), the numerical experiment shows that, when the classical method is used, $||u_h||_{L^2(\Omega)^2}$ decreases proportionally to h^2 (resp. h^4) whereas it decreases proportionally to h^4 (resp. h^6) with the projection method.

With an arbitrary potential Φ , we show rigorously in Appendix B (p. 158) that, with the Q1/P0 elements, $||u_h||_{L^2(\Omega)^2}$ decreases at least proportionally to h with the classical method and proportionally to h^2 with the projection method.



FIG. 5.8: The projection method for the experiment 2.4 on the same distorted mesh as in Figure 5.6. Note that the theoretical curve and the numerical one are now the same. A very precise result is also obtained by the projection method with the Q2/P1 elements in the case corresponding to Figure 5.7.

h	Classical method	Projection method
0.067	$6.49\mathrm{e}{-4}$	2.7e-6
0.05	3.66e-4	$8.6\mathrm{e} extsf{-}7$
0.033	1.63e-4	1.7e-7
0.028	1.19e-4	9.2e-8

TAB. 5.5: Value of $||u_h||_{L^2(\Omega)^2}$ when mesh step h decreases (case $f = \nabla \Phi_1$) with the Q1/P0 elements.

h	Classical method	Projection method
0.083	2.1e-4	$1.9\mathrm{e} ext{-}7$
0.067	0.86e-4	5.1e-8
0.05	0.28e-4	0.9e-8
0.045	0.19e-4	0.5e-8

TAB. 5.6: Same case as in Table 5.5 but with the Q2/P1 elements.

6 Conclusions

It has been shown that spurious speeds can appear in the flow of a incompressible fluid subjected to external forces if the numerical velocity is not rigorously divergence free. We have proposed a method which completely cancels the spurious field for a force whose gradient part is *a priori* known, and which improves the results when the gradient part is unknown. A mathematical study of the method has been presented. This method has been tested with the Q1/P0 and Q2/P1 pairs of finite elements, but it can easily be extended to other pairs of elements.

We have also shown that no spurious field appears with a particular set of forces on a mesh composed of Q1/P0 rectangular elements. This explains the good results obtained on regular meshes with some simple forces such as gravity. Nevertheless, it has been shown that spurious speeds may still appear on a regular mesh. Moreover, as soon as the mesh is composed of distorted elements, very inaccurate results may occur even with gravity. In all these cases, the method that we have proposed improves significantly the results.

Appendix A

In this appendix, we use the Q1/P0 pair of finite element spaces to approximate the velocity and the pressure.

A.1. Notations



FIG. 5.9: Quadrilateral T_k and reference unit square T_{ref} .

We shall denote by T_{ref} the reference unit square $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, by F_k the bilinear mapping that maps T_{ref} onto any quadrilateral T_k . F_k is defined by

$$F_k(\xi,\eta) = (x,y) = (A_0^k + A_1^k \xi + A_2^k \eta + A_3^k \xi \eta, B_0^k + B_1^k \xi + B_2^k \eta + B_3^k \xi \eta)$$
(7.1)

Denoting by (a_i^k, b_i^k) the coordinates of the vertices of T_k (cf. Figure 5.9), we have

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} A_0^k = a_1^k, & A_1^k = a_2^k - a_1^k, & A_2^k = a_4^k - a_1^k, & A_3^k = a_3^k - a_2^k - a_4^k + a_1^k \\ B_0^k = b_1^k, & B_1^k = b_2^k - b_1^k, & B_2^k = b_4^k - b_1^k, & B_3^k = b_3^k - b_2^k - b_4^k + b_1^k. \end{array} \right.$$

The determinant of the Jacobian matrix of the transformation is

$$J^{k}(\xi,\eta) = A_{1}^{k}B_{2}^{k} - A_{2}^{k}B_{1}^{k} + (A_{1}^{k}B_{3}^{k} - A_{3}^{k}B_{1}^{k})\xi + (A_{3}^{k}B_{2}^{k} - A_{2}^{k}B_{3}^{k})\eta.$$

If $|T_k|$ denotes the area of T_k , let us remark that $J^k(\xi, \eta) = |T_k|$ as soon as T_k is parallelogram. The shape functions λ_i of the reference element are defined by

$$\begin{cases} \lambda_{1}(\xi,\eta) &= (1-\xi)(1-\eta) \\ \lambda_{2}(\xi,\eta) &= \xi(1-\eta) \\ \lambda_{3}(\xi,\eta) &= \xi\eta \\ \lambda_{4}(\xi,\eta) &= (1-\xi)\eta \end{cases}$$

The shape functions ψ_i^k of T_k are defined by :

$$\lambda_i = \psi_i^k \circ F^k.$$

One easily checks that :

$$\int_{T_k} \frac{\partial \psi_i^k}{\partial x} dx dy = \int_{T_{ref}} \left[(B_2 + B_3 \xi) \frac{\partial \lambda_i}{\partial \xi} - (B_1 + B_3 \eta) \frac{\partial \lambda_i}{\partial \eta} \right] d\xi d\eta, (7.2)$$

$$\int_{T_k} \frac{\partial \psi_i^k}{\partial y} dx dy = \int_{T_{ref}} \left[-(A_2 + A_3 \xi) \frac{\partial \lambda_i}{\partial \xi} + (A_1 + A_3 \eta) \frac{\partial \lambda_i}{\partial \eta} \right] d\xi d\eta (7.3)$$

A.2. Influence of the grid

We wonder whether the classical method could coincide with the method of projection presented in Section 4. In other words, we are looking for conditions which imply

$$\int_{\Omega} \Phi \operatorname{div} v_j \, dx dy = \int_{\Omega} \Pi_h \Phi \operatorname{div} v_j \, dx dy, \tag{7.4}$$

with $v_j = (v_j, 0)$ or $(0, v_j)$ for all nodes j of the grid.

Proposition 10

If the elements of the mesh are identical rectangles whose sides are parallel to the coordinates axes, and if $\Phi(x, y) = \Psi_1(x) + \Psi_2(y) + \beta(x, y)$, where Ψ_1 and Ψ_2 denote two arbitrary functions and β is an arbitrary bilinear application (or, more generally, if Φ satisfies the property (4.4) of Section 4), then the classical method coincides with the projection method presented in Section 4.

Proof.

Let us consider the four quadrilaterals T_k , k=1,..,4 surrounding the node j. In order to simplify the notations we number them as on Figure 5.10. This allows us to write

$$v_j|_{T_k} = \psi_k^k.$$

For the sake of simplicity we denote ψ_k^k by ψ_k , forgetting the superscript k in the sequel.

Since we use the P0 finite element space for the pressure, $\Pi_h \Phi$ is constant over each T_k . By definition $\Pi_h \Phi|_{T_k} = \Phi_k = \frac{1}{|T_k|} \int_{T_{ref}} \Phi \circ F_k(\xi, \eta) J d\xi d\eta$.

Taking $v_j = (v_j, 0)$ we have :

$$\int_{\Omega} \Pi_h \Phi \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial x} dx dy = \sum_{\substack{k=1\\4}}^{4} \Phi_k \int_{T_k} \frac{\partial \psi_k}{\partial x} dx dy$$
$$= \sum_{\substack{k=1\\k=1}}^{4} \Phi_k \int_{T_{ref}} \left[(B_2^k + B_3^k \xi) \frac{\partial \lambda_k}{\partial \xi} - (B_1^k + B_3^k \eta) \frac{\partial \lambda_k}{\partial \eta} \right] d\xi d\eta$$



FIG. 5.10: The four elements around the node j.

and

$$\begin{split} \int_{\Omega} \Phi \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial x} \, dx dy &= \sum_{k=1}^{4} \int_{T_k} \Phi \frac{\partial \psi_k}{\partial x} \, dx dy \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{4} \int_{T_{ref}} \Phi \circ F_k(\xi, \eta) \left[(B_2^k + B_3^k \xi) \frac{\partial \lambda_k}{\partial \xi} - (B_1^k + B_3^k \eta) \frac{\partial \lambda_k}{\partial \eta} \right] \, d\xi d\eta. \end{split}$$

Let us suppose that the quadrilaterals of the mesh are *parallelograms*. Then $A_3^k = 0$, $B_3^k = 0$ for all k, and $\Phi_k = \int_{T_{ref}} \Phi \circ F_k(\xi, \eta) d\xi d\eta$. Doing the same calculus with $v_j = (0, v_j)$, equation (7.4) is finally equivalent to :

$$\begin{cases} \sum_{k=1}^{4} (-1)^k \int_{T_{ref}} \Phi \circ F_k(\xi, \eta) \left[-A_1^k(\xi - \frac{1}{2}) + A_2^k(\eta - \frac{1}{2}) \right] d\xi d\eta = 0 \\ \sum_{k=1}^{4} (-1)^k \int_{T_{ref}} \Phi \circ F_k(\xi, \eta) \left[-B_1^k(\xi - \frac{1}{2}) + B_2^k(\eta - \frac{1}{2}) \right] d\xi d\eta = 0. \end{cases}$$

$$(7.5)$$

Let us write these equalities on the parallelograms ${\cal T}_k$:

$$\begin{cases} \sum_{k=1}^{4} \frac{(-1)^k}{|T_k|^2} \int_{T_k} \Phi(x,y) \left[2A_1^k A_2^k (y - y_c^k) - (B_1^k A_2^k + A_1^k B_2^k) (x - x_c^k) \right] dxdy = 0\\ \sum_{k=1}^{4} \frac{(-1)^k}{|T_k|^2} \int_{T_k} \Phi(x,y) \left[2B_1^k B_2^k (x - x_c^k) - (B_1^k A_2^k + A_1^k B_2^k) (y - y_c^k) \right] dxdy = 0, \end{cases}$$

$$(7.6)$$

where (x_c^k, y_c^k) are the coordinates of the centre C_k of T_k .

Finally if the quadrilaterals are *rectangles* whose sides are parallel to the coordinates axes, we have $A_2^k = B_1^k = 0$ for all k and (7.6) becomes :

$$\begin{cases} \sum_{k=1}^{4} \frac{(-1)^k}{|T_k|} \int_{T_k} \Phi(x, y) (x - x_c^k) \, dx \, dy &= 0 \\ \sum_{k=1}^{4} \frac{(-1)^k}{|T_k|} \int_{T_k} \Phi(x, y) (y - y_c^k) \, dx \, dy &= 0 \end{cases}$$
(7.7)

When all the rectangles are identical, this relation is satisfied in particular by $\Phi(x, y) = \Psi_1(x) + \Psi_2(y) + \beta(x, y)$ where Ψ_1 and Ψ_2 are any functions and β is an arbitrary bilinear form. Therefore, with forces $f(x, y) = (f_1(x) + \alpha_1 y, f_2(y) + \alpha_2 x)$, formulations (3.3) and (4.2) are equivalent on meshes whose elements are identical and rectangular.

Appendix B

Our aim is to show that the projection method of Section 5 is more precise than the classical method in the case $f = \nabla \Phi$.

We denote by u_h^c the velocity obtained with the classical method and u_h^p the velocity obtained by the projection method. We recall that the expected solution is u = 0 and

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla u_h^c|^2 \, dx = -\frac{1}{\eta} \int_{\Omega} \Phi \text{div} \, u_h^c \, dx, \tag{8.1}$$

whereas

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla u_h^p|^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{\eta} \int_{\Omega} (f - \nabla \Phi_h) . u_h^p \, dx = \frac{1}{\eta} \int_{\Omega} (\Phi_h - \Phi) \operatorname{div} u_h^p \, dx.$$
(8.2)

B.1. Notations

For any h > 0, we denote by \mathcal{T}_h a regular "triangulation" of $\overline{\Omega}$ of typical size h. We suppose here that any element $T \in \mathcal{T}_h$ is a quadrilateral, but it is not necessary.

As in Appendix A, T_{ref} is the reference unit square $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$, F_T is the bilinear mapping that maps T_{ref} onto any quadrilateral T. We denote by Q_k the space of all polynomials in the reference space of the form $\hat{q}(\xi, \eta) =$ $\sum c_{ij}\xi^i\eta^j$ where the sum range over all integers i and j such that $0 \le i, j \le k$. We define $Q_k(T) = \{q = \hat{q} \circ F_T^{-1}; \hat{q} \in Q_k\}$.

We introduce

$$\begin{aligned} X_h &= \{ v_h \in \mathcal{C}^0(\overline{\Omega})^2; v_h |_T \in Q_k(T)^2, \forall T \in \mathcal{T}_h \} \cap H^1_0(\Omega)^2, \\ M_h &= \{ q_h \in L^2(\Omega); q_h |_T \in Q_l(T)^2, \forall T \in \mathcal{T}_h \} \cap L^2_0(\Omega), \\ Y_h &= \{ y \in \mathcal{C}^0(\overline{\Omega}); y |_T \in Q_k(T), \forall T \in \mathcal{T}_h \} \cap L^2_0(\Omega). \end{aligned}$$

The space X_h is devoted to the velocity, M_h to the pressure and Y_h to the potential part of the force f.

We provide $H^m(\Omega)$ with the following seminorm

$$|v|_m = \left(\sum_{|\alpha|=m} \int_{\Omega} |D^{\alpha}v|^2 dx\right)^{1/2}.$$

For $f = \nabla \Phi$ with $\Phi \in H^{m+1}(\Omega) \cap L^2_0(\Omega)$, $m \ge 0$ we define $\Phi_h \in Y_h$ as the finite element solution of the Neumann problem

$$-\Delta \Phi = \operatorname{div} f \quad \text{in } \Omega$$
$$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n} = f.n \quad \text{on } \partial \Omega.$$

such that $\int_{\Omega} \Phi_h = 0$ (the condition on $\partial \Omega$ is formal when m = 0). More precisely, we have :

$$\int_{\Omega} \nabla \Phi_h . \nabla \psi_h \, dx = \int_{\Omega} f . \nabla \psi_h \, dx$$

for all $\psi_h \in Y_h$.

For $l \geq 0$ and for $z \in L_0^2(\Omega)$, we recall that $\Pi_h z \in M_h$ is defined as follows:

$$\Pi_h z|_T \in Q_l(T)$$
$$\int_T (\Pi_h z - z) q \, dx = 0 \qquad \forall q \in Q_l(T)$$

B.2. Error estimates

Proposition 11

We suppose that the force is a gradient $f = \nabla \Phi$ and we use the Q1/P0 pair of finite element space. Then, when the typical size of the mesh h tends to zero, the seminorm $|.|_1$ of the velocity calculated by the classical method tends to zero like h whereas the velocity calculated by the projection method tends to zero like h^2 .

Proof.

First, we recall the approximation result (see e.g. V. Girault and P.-A. Raviart [46]) :

Lemma 8.1 Let $\Phi \in H^{m+1}(\Omega)$, for some m such that $0 \leq m \leq k$. If we define Φ_h as described in B.1 we have :

$$|\Phi - \Phi_h|_1 \le C_1 h^m |\Phi|_{m+1}$$

with a constant $C_1 > 0$ independent of h and Φ .

The following lemma is a straightforward application of a result of projection in $L^2(\Omega)$ presented in [46] :

Lemma 8.2 Let $z \in H^s(\Omega) \cap L^2_0(\Omega)$ for some s such that $0 \le s \le l+1$. The projection Π_h defined in B.1 satisfies :

$$||z - \prod_h z||_{L^2(\Omega)} \le C_2 h^s |z|_s,$$

with a constant $C_2 > 0$ independent of h and z.

We restrict ourselves to the case k = 1, l = 0 corresponding to the pair Q1/P0. We choose s = 1 and m = 1 in the previous lemmas. In view of

(8.1) we have :

$$\begin{aligned} |u_h^c|_1^2 &= -\frac{1}{\eta} \int_{\Omega} (\Phi - \Pi_h \Phi) \operatorname{div} u_h^c \, dx \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\eta} ||\Phi - \Pi_h \Phi||_{L^2(\Omega)} ||\operatorname{div} u_h^c||_{L^2(\Omega)} \\ &\leq \frac{C_2}{\eta} h |\Phi|_1 ||\operatorname{div} u_h^c||_{L^2(\Omega)} \end{aligned}$$

We deduce that

$$|u_h^c|_1 \le \frac{C_2}{\eta} |\Phi|_1 h.$$
(8.3)

On the other hand from (8.2) the estimate of $|u_h^p|_1$ is :

$$\begin{aligned} |u_{h}^{p}|_{1}^{2} &= -\frac{1}{\eta} \int_{\Omega} [(\Phi_{h} - \Phi) - \Pi_{h}(\Phi_{h} - \Phi)] \operatorname{div} u_{h}^{p} dx \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\eta} ||(\Phi_{h} - \Phi) - \Pi_{h}(\Phi_{h} - \Phi)||_{L^{2}(\Omega)} ||\operatorname{div} u_{h}^{p}||_{L^{2}(\Omega)} \\ &\leq \frac{C_{2}}{\eta} h |\Phi_{h} - \Phi|_{1} ||\operatorname{div} u_{h}^{p}||_{L^{2}(\Omega)} \\ &\leq \frac{C_{1}C_{2}}{\eta} h^{2} |\Phi|_{2} ||\operatorname{div} u_{h}^{p}||_{L^{2}(\Omega)} \end{aligned}$$

Thus :

$$u_{h}^{p}|_{1} \le \frac{C_{1}C_{2}}{\eta}|\Phi|_{2}h^{2}$$
(8.4)

A comparison between (8.3) and (8.4) shows the improvement of the projection method in the case of $f = \nabla \Phi$. These estimates may be better in some particular cases (see Table 5.5).

Chapitre 6

Comparison between two numerical methods for a magnetostatic problem

Ce chapitre, réalisé en collaboration avec Claude Le Bris, a donné lieu à un rapport de recherche CERMICS (numéro 97-116). Il a été soumis pour publication à Calcolo. Une version abrégée, complétée par des résultats du Chapitre 7, paraîtra dans les actes du congrés ECCOMAS 1998 (Wiley).

1 Introduction

In this work, we consider a magnetostatic problem set on a bounded simplyconnected domain Ω of \mathbb{R}^3 , enclosed in a $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ boundary Γ . The magnetic field B we seek is the solution to a vector Poisson problem with non-classical boundary conditions, namely a system of the form

$$\begin{cases} \operatorname{curl}(\operatorname{curl} B) = f \\ \operatorname{div} B = 0 \\ \operatorname{curl} B \times n = k \times n \quad \operatorname{on} \Gamma \\ B.n = q \quad \operatorname{on} \Gamma. \end{cases}$$
(1.1)

It can be seen on (1.1) that the boundary conditions on curl $B \times n$, very natural from the physical standpoint, introduce a coupling between the components of B which prevents one from solving the vectorial problem as three scalar Poisson equations, contrarily to the case when there are three Dirichlet boundary conditions. Some difficulties are therefore likely to be encountered from a computational viewpoint. Indeed, whereas in the case of a "classical" vector Poisson problem, three linear systems of size N^2 have to be solved (Ndenotes the number of degrees of freedom on the mesh), a coupled system is here to be solved, which increases the required memory. Let us point out that such a situation also occurs in the framework of hydrodynamics when a vector potential associated to the velocity field in incompressible flows is computed. In this latter context, the system is

$$\begin{cases} -\Delta u = f, \\ u \times n = a \times n \text{ on } \Gamma, \\ \operatorname{div} u = b \text{ on } \Gamma. \end{cases}$$
(1.2)

In order to solve (1.2), L. Quartapelle and coworkers have extended and analysed an interesting uncoupled algorithm (see [74], [99], [100]) based on the influence matrix method introduced by R. Glowinski and O. Pironneau. The idea is basically to transform system (1.2) into the resolution of a standard system with Dirichlet boundary conditions together with the resolution of a problem on the surface Γ . From the computational viewpoint, this strategy replaces the resolution of the original linear system by linear systems of smaller size N^2 . The boundary conditions on the vector Poisson equations are different in magnetostatics from the ones used in hydrodynamics, but we show in the present work that this algorithm may however be extended in order to treat the magnetostatic problem.

Our aim is to compare the following two strategies to solve problem (1.1):

- a "direct method" which treats simultaneously the three components of B,
- an "uncoupled method", following the ideas of Glowinski-Pironneau and Quartapelle and coworkers, which treats successively the three components of B.

Let us briefly derivate the magnetostatic equation we shall consider henceforth. We begin with the stationary Maxwell equations :

$$\operatorname{curl}\left(B/\mu\right) = j,\tag{1.3}$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0, \tag{1.4}$$

$$\operatorname{curl} E = 0. \tag{1.5}$$

While the magnetostatic problem (1.3)-(1.4) is often solved numerically through the introduction of the so-called scalar and vector potentials (see for instance E. Emson [18] and the bibliography therein), we shall not follow this approach here.

In the sequel, μ is supposed to be constant, thus we may set $\mu = 1$ without loss of generality. On the boundary Γ , we specify some components of the magnetic and electric fields as follows :

$$B.n|_{\Gamma} = q,$$

$$E \times n|_{\Gamma} = \frac{1}{\sigma}k \times n.$$

where n is the outward-pointing normal to Ω . Using the Ohm's law $j = \sigma E$ (or $j = \sigma(E + u \times B)$ with $u|_{\Gamma} = 0$ for a magnetohydrodynamics flow), the boundary conditions on E also reads

$$\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl} B \times n = \frac{1}{\sigma}k \times n.$$

Let us denote i/σ by q in the sequel. Taking the curl of (1.3) we obtain the system

$$\operatorname{curl}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl}B\right) = \operatorname{curl}g \quad \text{in }\Omega,$$
 (1.6)

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0 \quad \text{in } \Omega, \tag{1.7}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl} B \times n = \frac{1}{\sigma} k \times n \quad \text{on } \Gamma, \qquad (1.8)$$

$$B.n = q \qquad \text{on } \Gamma. \tag{1.9}$$

We suppose that the conductivity σ is constant over the domain (see however Remark 5.1 below) and we set $\sigma = 1$. Therefore, the equations to be solved are :

$$\operatorname{curl}\left(\operatorname{curl}B\right) = f \quad \text{in }\Omega, \tag{1.10}$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0 \qquad \text{in } \Omega, \tag{1.11}$$

$$\operatorname{curl} B \times n = k \times n \quad \text{on } \Gamma, \tag{1.12}$$

$$B.n = q \qquad \text{on } \Gamma, \tag{1.13}$$

where $f = \operatorname{curl} q$.

We shall proceed as follows. We study in Section 2 two variational formulations of (1.1). The formulation presented in 2.2 will be used in the uncoupled strategy whereas the formulation of Section 2.3 will be used in the direct method. The two approaches are then detailed in Sections 3 and 4. We compare the results obtained with the two methods in Section 5 in term of precision, CPU time and memory. Finally, in Section 6 we draw conclusions about our whole work.

$\mathbf{2}$ Variational formulations

We present in this section two variational formulations of (1.10)-(1.13) that will be used in the sequel. We refer for example to F. Kikuchi [59] for other formulations of the magnetostatic problem.

2.1 Functional setting

We recall that Ω is supposed to be a bounded simply-connected domain with a $\mathcal{C}^{1,1}$ boundary. In particular, we exclude for this theoretical study domains with holes. We are aware that this assumption might be too restrictive in some practical cases, nevertheless, such domains are sufficient for the applications we deal with. The first consequence of this assumption of regularity is the continuous embedding (see V. Girault, P.A. Raviart [46], Theorem 3.8 and 3.9)

$$\{B \in L^2(\Omega)^3, \operatorname{curl} B \in L^2(\Omega)^3, \operatorname{div} B \in L^2(\Omega)^3, B.n|_{\Gamma} = 0\} \hookrightarrow H^1(\Omega)^3.$$
(2.1)

In the sequel, we shall need the following functional spaces

$$W = \{ B \in (H^1(\Omega))^3, B.n|_{\Gamma} = 0 \},\$$
$$W_q = \{ B \in (H^1(\Omega))^3, B.n|_{\Gamma} = q \}.$$

We denote by (.,.) the usual inner product of $L^2(\Omega)^3$, by <.,.> the duality product between $H^{-1}(\Omega)^3$ and $H^1_0(\Omega)^3$, and by $<.,.>_{\Gamma}$ the duality product between $H^{-1/2}(\Gamma)^3$ and $H^{1/2}(\Gamma)^3$. For $B, C \in H^1(\Omega)^3$ we define :

$$((B, C)) = (\operatorname{curl} B, \operatorname{curl} C) + (\operatorname{div} B, \operatorname{div} C).$$

The second consequence of the assumption on the domain Ω is that there exists a constant c > 0 such that for any arbitrary $B \in W$,

$$||B||_{H^1(\Omega)^3} \le c(||\operatorname{curl} B||_{L^2(\Omega)^3} + ||\operatorname{div} B||_{L^2(\Omega)^3}).$$
(2.2)

In other words, ((.,.)) is a scalar product on W which induces a norm that is equivalent to the $H^1(\Omega)^3$ norm on W (see V. Girault, P.A. Raviart [46], Lemma 3.6).

The data are supposed to have to following regularity :

$$q \in H^{1/2}(\Gamma), k \in H^{-1/2}(\Gamma)^3, g \in H^1(\Omega)^3.$$
 (2.3)

Moreover, we suppose that :

$$\int_{\Gamma} q \, d\gamma = 0, \tag{2.4}$$

$$\langle k \times n, \nabla \Phi \rangle_{\Gamma} = 0, \quad \forall \Phi \in H^2(\Omega)^3,$$
(2.5)

$$(\operatorname{curl} g, \nabla \Phi) = 0, \quad \forall \Phi \in H^2(\Omega)^3.$$
 (2.6)

Assumption (2.4) is the standard compatibility condition with (1.11). Assumptions (2.5) and (2.6), which are satisfied in physical situations in view of (1.5) and Ohm's law, will be of crucial importance below (see the proof of Proposition 13).

2.2 Classical formulation

We define the following variational problem : find $B \in W_q$ such that

$$((B,C)) = (\operatorname{curl} g, C) + \langle k \times n, C \rangle_{\Gamma}, \quad \text{for all } C \in W.$$
(2.7)

We then have

Proposition 12

The variational problem (2.7) has a unique solution.

Proof. Remark first that (2.2) implies that ((.,.)) defines a bilinear symmetric and coercive application on $W \times W$. Since $C \to (\operatorname{curl} g, C) + \langle k \times n, C \rangle_{\Gamma}$ belongs obviously to W', the Lax-Milgram Theorem implies there exists a unique $B_0 \in W$ such that

$$((B_0, C)) = (\operatorname{curl} g, C) + \langle k \times n, C \rangle_{\Gamma}, \quad \text{for all } C \in W.$$

Next, we define $B_q = \nabla \Phi$, with Φ such that

$$-\Delta \Phi = 0 \quad \text{in } \Omega$$

 $\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n} = q \quad \text{on } \Gamma.$

Note that $B_q \cdot n = q$, div $B_q = 0$ and curl $B_q = 0$ and that $B_q \in H^1(\Omega)^3$ in view of a classical result of elliptic regularity. Thus $B = B_0 + B_q$ is a solution to (2.7). The uniqueness of B is a straightforward consequence of the coercivity of ((.,.)) on W.

Proposition 13

Under the assumptions (2.3)-(2.6), system (1.10)-(1.13) is equivalent to the variational problem (2.7).

Proof (sketch). It is straightforward to prove that any solution of (1.10)-(1.13) is a solution of (2.7). Conversely, let *B* be a solution of (2.7). One checks by standard arguments that *B* satisfies (1.10), (1.12) and (1.13). The point is to show that *B* is divergence-free. For this purpose, let us consider an arbitrary $h \in L^2(\Omega)$ with $\int_{\Omega} h \, dx = 0$ and let us define $\Phi \in H^2(\Omega)$ by

$$\begin{cases} -\bigtriangleup \Phi &= h \\ \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n} &= 0 \quad \text{on } \Gamma \end{cases}$$

Taking $C = \nabla \Phi$ as a test function in (2.7), we obtain :

 $(\operatorname{curl} B, \operatorname{curl} \nabla \Phi) + (\operatorname{div} B, \operatorname{div} \nabla \Phi) = (\operatorname{curl} g, \nabla \Phi) + \langle k \times n, \nabla \Phi \rangle.$

In view of the assumptions (2.5) and (2.6) this equality yields :

$$(\operatorname{div} B, h) = 0$$

It follows that div B is constant over Ω , and this constant is zero in view of assumption (2.4). Consequently, (1.11) holds. \diamond

2.3 A mixed formulation to treat $B \cdot n = q$ as a constraint

In order to turn the formulation of Section 2.2 into a numerical method, we must first construct suitable finite elements approximation spaces for Wand W_q . If the boundaries of the domain happen not to be parallel to the coordinnates axes, this construction may be tedious from a computational viewpoint. We now suggest a formulation that circumvents this difficulty : we work on the spaces

$$X = H^{1}(\Omega)^{3},$$
$$M = H^{-1/2}(\Gamma)$$

We denote by $||.||_X$ (resp. $||.||_M$) the usual norm on $H^1(\Omega)^3$ (resp. $H^{-1/2}(\Gamma)$) and we define the bilinear form b on $X \times M$ by

$$b(B,\mu) = \langle B.n,\mu \rangle_{\Gamma}$$

For ease of notation, we denote by $\langle ., . \rangle_{\Gamma}$ the duality product between $H^{-1}(\Omega)$ and $H^1_0(\Omega)$ or between $H^{-1}(\Omega)^3$ and $H^1_0(\Omega)^3$ as above. We introduce the following mixed formulation :

find $(B, \lambda) \in X \times M$ such that, $\forall (C, \mu) \in X \times M$,

$$\begin{cases} ((B,C)) + b(C,\lambda) &= (f,C) + < k \times n, C >_{\Gamma}, \\ b(B,\mu) &= < q, \mu >_{\Gamma}. \end{cases}$$
(2.8)

Proposition 14

The mixed variational problem (2.8) has a unique solution.

Proof. First, we prove that there exists a constant $\beta > 0$ such that

$$\inf_{\mu \in M - \{0\}} \sup_{B \in X - \{0\}} \frac{b(B, \mu)}{||B||_X ||\mu||_M} \ge \beta.$$

Indeed, let μ be in $M - \{0\}$. A classical corollary of the Hahn-Banach theorem yields the existence of $\alpha \in H^{1/2}(\Gamma)$ with $||\alpha||_{H^{1/2}(\Gamma)} = 1$ such that :

$$<\frac{\mu}{||\mu||_M}, \alpha>_{\Gamma}=1.$$

It is straightforward to build $B_0 \in X$ such that $B_0.n|_{\Gamma} = \alpha$ and $||B_0||_X \leq c||\alpha||_{H^{1/2}(\Gamma)} = c$, with c independent on B_0 and α . Thus, for all $\mu \in M$,

$$\frac{b(B_0,\mu)}{||B_0||_X} = \frac{\langle \mu, \alpha \rangle_{\Gamma}}{||B_0||_X} \ge \frac{1}{c} ||\mu||_M,$$

which proves the inf-sup condition. Moreover, the space $\{C \in X, b(C, \mu) = 0, \forall \mu \in M\}$ is equal to space W and, according to (2.2), the bilinear form ((.,.)) is coercive on W. Therefore, the classical theory on mixed variational problems permits to conclude the proof. \diamond

Remark 2.1 The solution of (2.8) may be seen as the saddle-point of the Lagrange functional $\mathcal{L}(B,\mu) = \frac{1}{2}((B,B)) - (f,B) - \langle k \times n, B \rangle_{\Gamma} + b(B,\mu) - \langle q,\mu \rangle_{\Gamma}$.

Proposition 15

Under the assumptions (2.3)-(2.6), system (1.10)-(1.13) is equivalent to the mixed problem (2.8).

Proof.(sketch) Let B be a solution of (1.10)-(1.13). Equation (1.13) yields $b(B,\mu) = \langle q, \mu \rangle_{\Gamma}, \forall \mu \in M$. Moreover, since div B = 0, we have

$$\operatorname{curl}(\operatorname{curl} B) - \nabla(\operatorname{div} B) = f.$$

Multiplying this equation by $C \in X$ and integrating by part over Ω we obtain

$$\int_{\Omega} (\operatorname{curl} B.\operatorname{curl} C + \operatorname{div} B \operatorname{div} C) \, dx - \int_{\Gamma} C.n \operatorname{div} B \, d\gamma = \int_{\Omega} f.C \, dx + \langle k \times n, C \rangle_{\Gamma}$$

Thus (2.8) holds with the Lagrange multiplier $\lambda = -\text{div} B|_{\Gamma}$. Conversely, some analogous arguments prove that the solution of (2.8) satisfies (1.10)-(1.13). In particular, we check that B is divergence-free in the same fashion as in Proposition 15. \diamond

3 Direct resolution based on the mixed formulation

3.1 Penalized formulation

The mixed formulation (2.8) can actually be applied to a finite element analysis. However, it requires the computation of the Lagrange multiplier λ . A standard method to avoid this computation is to consider the corresponding penalized formulation. Let $\varepsilon > 0$, we assume that

$$b(B,\mu) - \langle q,\mu \rangle_{\Gamma} = \varepsilon \langle \lambda,\mu \rangle, \quad \forall \mu \in M,$$

and we seek $B \in X$ such that $\forall C \in X$

$$((B,C)) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} < B.n, C.n >_{\Gamma} = (f,C) + < k \times n, C >_{\Gamma} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} < q, C.n >_{\Gamma}.$$

$$(3.1)$$

3.2 Discretisation

Let h > 0 be fixed. The domain Ω is approximated by a polyhedron Ω_h with its vertices on Γ . A partition \mathcal{T}_h of Ω_h into elements consisting of tetrahedrons or convex hexahedrons is performed in a standard way. In the sequel, $R_m(K)$ stands for $P_m(K)$ if K is a tetrahedron and for $Q_m(K)$ if K is a hexahedron, where for each integer $m \geq 0$, P_m and Q_m have the usual meaning. For the sake of simplicity, we only consider Lagrangian finite elements.

We denote by Γ_h the boundary of Ω_h , by *n* its approximated unit outward pointing normal, and by t_1 , t_2 an approximated orthogonal set of tangent vectors (see Remark 3.2 below for the treatment of the singular points of Γ). The number of nodes on Ω_h (resp. Γ_h) is denoted by *N* (resp. *M*).

$$\begin{aligned} X^{h} &= \{ v_{h} \in \mathcal{C}^{0}(\overline{\Omega}); v_{h}|_{T} \in R_{m}(T), \forall T \in \mathcal{T}_{h} \}, \\ X^{h}_{0} &= \{ v_{h} \in \mathcal{C}^{0}(\overline{\Omega}); v_{h}|_{T} \in R_{m}(T), \forall T \in \mathcal{T}_{h} \} \cap H^{1}_{0}(\Omega), \\ Y^{h} &= \{ v_{h}|_{\Gamma_{h}}, v_{h} \in X^{h} \}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we search $B_h \in (X^h)^3$ such that for all $C_h \in (X^h)^3$

$$((B_h, C_h)) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} < B_h.n, C_h.n >_{\Gamma} = (f, C_h) + < k \times n, C_h >_{\Gamma} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} < q, C_h.n >_{\Gamma} .$$

$$(3.2)$$

Remark 3.1 In the numerical simulations we have performed, the value $\varepsilon = 1.e - 4$ has given very good results without increasing too much the condition number of the system.

Remark 3.2 In our numerical tests, we have computed the normals and the tangents at the nodes of the boundary. Denoting by φ_i the hat function at the node *i*, the approximated normal is given by :

$$n_i = \frac{\int_{\Omega} \nabla \varphi_i \, dx}{\int_{\Gamma} \varphi_i \, dx}.$$

We then deduce from n_i the values of t_1 and t_2 at the node *i*.

In order to compute $((B_h, C_h))$ we can use the following formula (see O. Pironneau [73] or F. Assous, P. Degond, E. Heintze, P.A. Raviart and J. Segre [5])

$$((B,C)) = \int_{\Omega} \nabla B \cdot \nabla C \, dx + \sum_{k=1}^{3} \int_{\Gamma} (\nabla B^{k} \times n) \cdot (e_{k} \times C) \, d\gamma, \qquad (3.3)$$

where $(e_k, 1 \leq k \leq 3)$ denotes the canonical basis of \mathbb{R}^3 and B^k stands for $B.e_k$. This equality can be easily established in the continuous case. It also holds in the discrete case since the boundary terms only involve tangential derivatives, and thus cancel on the inside faces.

From a computational viewpoint, the formula (3.3) shows that it is useless to allocate memory for a 3×3 system of (sparse) blocks $N^2 \times N^2$: we only need 3 blocks of size $N^2 \times N^2$ for the three laplacians and 6 blocks of size $N \times N_{\Gamma}$ for the boundary terms. Nevertheless, in some practical problems, this system may still be too large. In such cases, one may use the method presented in Section 4 which allows to solve the problem with a $N \times N$ sparse system.

4 Uncoupled resolution based on the first formulation

As above mentioned, the formulation (2.7) has two drawbacks : first, it needs a finite element basis to approximate the space W, second it leads – like formulation (2.8) – to large systems (even if the formula (3.3) somewhat reduces the size of the matrix). Thus, rather than detailing the direct discretisation of (2.7), we present a method based on the same variational formulation which avoids the coupling induced by the boundary conditions and thus lead to smaller matrices.

4.1 Uncoupled formulation

J. Zhu, L. Quartapelle and A.F.D. Loula have considered in [100] a problem arising in computational fluid dynamics which basically shares the same features as ours. They propose an uncoupled technique that we now adapt to (2.7). We introduce :

$$W_{q,T} = \{ B \in H^1(\Omega)^3, B.n |_{\Gamma} = q, B \times n = 0 \},$$

$$\mathcal{H}_N = \{ B \in H^1(\Omega)^3, \Delta B = 0 \text{ in } \Omega, B.n = 0 \text{ on } \Gamma \}.$$

Note that $B \in W_q^1$ may be decomposed as :

$$B = B_T + B_{\mathcal{H}}$$

with $B_T \in W_{q,T}$ and $B_{\mathcal{H}} \in \mathcal{H}_N$ (solve $-\Delta B_{\mathcal{H}} = 0$ on Ω , $B_{\mathcal{H}}.n|_{\Gamma} = 0$, $B_{\mathcal{H}}|_{\Gamma} \times n = B|_{\Gamma} \times n$, and set $B_T = B - B_{\mathcal{H}}$). In the same fashion, $C \in W$ may be decomposed as :

$$C = C_0 + C_{\mathcal{H}}$$

with $C_0 \in H_0^1(\Omega)^3$ and $C_{\mathcal{H}} \in \mathcal{H}_N$. By linearity, (2.7) reads :

$$\begin{cases} ((B, C_0)) = (f, C_0), \quad \forall C_0 \in (H_0^1(\Omega))^3 \\ ((B, C_{\mathcal{H}})) = (f, C_{\mathcal{H}}) - \langle k, C_{\mathcal{H}} \times n \rangle_{\Gamma}, \quad \forall C_{\mathcal{H}} \in \mathcal{H}_N. \end{cases}$$

We have :

$$((B_{\mathcal{H}}, C_0)) = \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{curl} (\operatorname{curl} B_{\mathcal{H}}) \cdot C_0 \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{div} B_{\mathcal{H}} \operatorname{div} C_0 \, dx$$

=
$$\int_{\Omega} -\Delta B_{\mathcal{H}} \cdot C_0 + \nabla (\operatorname{div} B_{\mathcal{H}}) \cdot C_0 \, dx - \int_{\Omega} \nabla (\operatorname{div} B_{\mathcal{H}}) \cdot C_0 \, dx$$

= 0.

Therefore, the variational formulation (2.7) is equivalent to the following uncoupled formulation : find $B_T \in W_{q,T}$ and $B_{\mathcal{H}} \in \mathcal{H}_N$ such that

$$((B_T, C_0)) = (f, C_0), \quad \forall C_0 \in H^1_0(\Omega)^3$$

$$((B_H, C_H)) = (f, C_H) - ((B_T, C_H)) - \langle k, C_H \times n \rangle_{\Gamma}, \forall C_H \in \mathcal{H}_N.$$

$$(4.2)$$

Equation (4.1) is a system consisting of three independent scalar Dirichlet problems. One next remarks that (4.2) may be solved as a problem set on Γ . Indeed, (4.2) is equivalent to find λ^1 , $\lambda^2 \in H^{1/2}(\Gamma)$ such that, for all $\mu^1, \mu^2 \in H^{1/2}(\Gamma)$:

$$((C_{\mathcal{H}}(\lambda^{1},\lambda^{2}),C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^{1},\mu^{2}))) = (f,C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^{1},\mu^{2})) - ((B_{T},C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^{1},\mu^{2}))) - < k,\mu^{1}t_{1} + \mu^{2}t_{1} >_{\Gamma}$$

$$(4.3)$$

with $C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^1, \mu^2)$ defined by

$$\begin{cases} -\Delta C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^1, \mu^2) = 0 \quad \text{in } \Omega, \\ C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^1, \mu^2) \times n = \mu^1 t_1 + \mu^2 t_2 \quad \text{on } \Gamma, \\ C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^1, \mu^2) \cdot n = 0 \quad \text{on } \Gamma. \end{cases}$$

Remark 4.1 As shown in [100],

$$\left(\left(C_{\mathcal{H}}(\lambda^{1},\lambda^{2}),C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^{1},\mu^{2})\right)\right)=\left(\left(C_{\mathcal{H}}(\lambda^{1},\lambda^{2}),w\right)\right)$$

for any arbitrary vector field $w \in (H^1(\Omega))^3$ which coincides with $C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^1, \mu^2)$ on Γ . Indeed :

$$((C_{\mathcal{H}}(\lambda^{1},\lambda^{2}),C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^{1},\mu^{2}))) = \int_{\Omega} curl (curl C_{\mathcal{H}}(\lambda^{1},\lambda^{2})).C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^{1},\mu^{2}) dx + \int_{\Gamma} curl C_{\mathcal{H}}(\lambda_{1},\lambda_{2}) \times n.C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^{1},\mu^{2}) d\gamma - \int_{\Omega} \nabla (div C_{\mathcal{H}}(\lambda^{1},\lambda^{2})).C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^{1},\mu^{2}) dx = \int_{\Gamma} curl C_{\mathcal{H}}(\lambda_{1},\lambda_{2}) \times n.w d\gamma = ((C_{\mathcal{H}}(\lambda_{1},\lambda_{2}),w)).$$

It may be proved following the same lines that :

$$(f, C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^{1}, \mu^{2})) - ((B_{T}, C_{\mathcal{H}}(\mu^{1}, \mu^{2}))) - \langle k, \mu^{1}t_{1} + \mu^{2}t_{1} \rangle_{\Gamma}$$
$$= (f, w) - ((B_{T}, w)) - \langle k, w \times n \rangle_{\Gamma}.$$

These properties will be used in the numerical implementation below.

4.2 Discretisation

We define an approximation of the space \mathcal{H}_T by

$$\mathcal{H}_T^h = \{B_h \in (X^h)^3, \int_{\Omega_h} \nabla B_h \cdot \nabla C_h \, dx = 0, \forall C_h \in (X_0^h)^3 \text{ and } B_h \cdot n|_{\Gamma_h} = 0\}$$

Let $(\varphi_1, ..., \varphi_{N_{\Gamma}})$ be a basis of Y_h $(\varphi_i$ is typically the "hat function" at the node i of Γ_h). We construct a basis $(b_1^1, ..., b_{N_{\Gamma}}^1, b_1^1, ..., b_{N_{\Gamma}}^2)$ of \mathcal{H}_T^h with b_i^k such that $b_i^1 = \varphi_i t_1$ and $b_i^2 = \varphi_i t_2$ on Γ_h . In other words, b_i^k satisfies for all $C_h \in (X_0^h)^3$:

$$\begin{cases} (\nabla b_i^k, \nabla C_h) &= 0\\ b_i^k &= \varphi_i t_k \quad \text{ on } 1 \end{cases}$$

An approximation B_T^h of the solution to equation (4.1) may be computed in a classical way through the resolution of three Poisson scalar problems.

In order to solve (4.2), let us now decompose $B^h_{\mathcal{H}}$ on the basis $(b^1_i, b^2_i)_{i=1...N_{\Gamma}}$:

$$B^h_{\mathcal{H}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\Gamma}} \lambda^1_i b^1_i + \lambda^2_i b^2_i.$$

The pair $(\lambda_i^1, \lambda_i^2)$ may be seen as the coordinates of $B_{\mathcal{H}}^h$ on the "discrete harmonic basis" $(b_i^1, b_i^2)_{i=1...N_{\Gamma}}$ as well as the tangential components of $B_{\mathcal{H}}^h$ on Γ_h . That is why (4.2) may be interpreted as a problem set on the boundary.

The discrete approximation of (4.2) reads :

$$((B_{\mathcal{H}}^{h}, b_{i}^{p})) = (f, b_{i}^{p}) - ((B_{T}^{h}, b_{i}^{p})) - \langle k, b_{i}^{p} \times n \rangle_{\Gamma},$$

for $i = 1, ..., N_{\Gamma}$ and p = 1, 2. More precisely, in order to solve (4.2), we have to find $(\lambda_1^1, ..., \lambda_{N_{\Gamma}}^1, \lambda_1^2, ..., \lambda_{N_{\Gamma}}^2)$ such that

$$\begin{cases} \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\Gamma}} \lambda_{j}^{1}((b_{j}^{1}, b_{i}^{1})) + \lambda_{j}^{2}((b_{j}^{2}, b_{i}^{1})) &= (f, b_{i}^{1}) - ((B_{T}^{h}, b_{i}^{1})) - \langle k, b_{i}^{1} \times n \rangle_{\Gamma} \\ \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\Gamma}} \lambda_{j}^{1}((b_{j}^{1}, b_{i}^{2})) + \lambda_{j}^{2}((b_{j}^{2}, b_{i}^{2})) &= (f, b_{i}^{2}) - ((B_{T}^{h}, b_{i}^{2})) - \langle k, b_{i}^{2} \times n \rangle_{\Gamma} \end{cases}$$

$$(4.4)$$

for $i = 1, ..., N_{\Gamma}$.

4.3 Numerical implementation

In this section, we lay some emphasis on the practical implementation of the discrete algorithm we have presented above.

We denote by \mathcal{A} the matrix of the linear system (4.4) and by \mathcal{M} the matrix of the linear system yielded by the discretisation of the original coupled problem (2.7).

The discretisation presented in Section 4.2 has two drawbacks. First, the discrete vector harmonic basis (b_i^1, b_i^2) must be computed, which involves the resolution of $2N_{\Gamma}$ Poisson problems on Ω_h . Second, the size of \mathcal{A} is actually smaller than the size of \mathcal{M} $((2N_{\Gamma})^2$ instead of $(3N)^2$) but \mathcal{A} is full whereas \mathcal{M} is sparse, thus it is not clear whether it is much cheaper to store \mathcal{A} rather than \mathcal{M} .

In order to overcome both difficulties, we make use of the conjugate gradient algorithm presented by R. Glowinski and O. Pironneau in [47] and that we recall now for the convenience of the reader. As we shall see, this method avoids both the computation of the discrete harmonic basis and the storage of \mathcal{A} .

We set $\Lambda = (\lambda_1^1, ..., \lambda_{N_{\Gamma}}^1, \lambda_1^2, ..., \lambda_{N_{\Gamma}}^2)$ and we denote by β the right-handside of (4.4). Suppose now that we solve (4.4) by the conjugate gradient method. The algorithm reads :

$$\Lambda_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{2N_{\Gamma}}, \qquad \text{arbitrarily chosen} \qquad (4.1)$$

$$g_0 = \mathcal{A}\Lambda_0 - \beta \tag{4.2}$$

$$z_0 = g_0, \qquad n = 0 \tag{4.3}$$

$$d_n = \mathcal{A} z_n \tag{4.4}$$

$$\rho_n = z_n g_n / z_n d_n \tag{4.5}$$

$$\Lambda_{n+1} = \Lambda_n - \rho_n z_n \tag{4.6}$$

$$g_{n+1} = g_n - \rho_n d_n \tag{4.7}$$

$$\gamma_n = g_{n+1} \cdot g_{n+1} / g_n \cdot g_n \tag{4.8}$$

$$z_{n+1} = g_{n+1} + \gamma_n z_n \tag{4.9}$$

$$n \rightarrow n+1 \text{ and go to } (4.4)$$
 (4.10)

In order to compute $\mathcal{A}z$ for any vector $z = (z^1, z^2) = (z_1^1, ..., z_{N_{\Gamma}}^1, z_1^2, ..., z_{N_{\Gamma}}^2) \in \mathbb{R}^{2N_{\Gamma}}$ without explicitly knowing \mathcal{A} , we define the function $C \in \mathcal{H}_T^h$ by

$$C(z^1, z^2) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\Gamma}} z_i^1 b_i^1 + z_i^2 b_i^2.$$

Recall that $C(z^1, z^2)$ is the solution of the following discrete Poisson problem : find $C(z^1, z^2) \in (X^h)^3$ such that

$$\begin{cases} (\nabla C(z^{1}, z^{2}), \nabla D) = 0 & \text{for all } D \in (X_{0}^{h})^{3}, \\ C.n = 0, & (4.11) \\ C(z^{1}, z^{2}) \times n = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\Gamma}} z_{i}^{1} \varphi_{i} t_{1} + z_{i}^{2} \varphi_{i} t_{2}. \end{cases}$$

Let us note that this problem may be straightforwardly decoupled in three

scalar Laplace equations. By definition of \mathcal{A} , we have

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{A}z = \left(\begin{array}{c} \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\Gamma}} z_{j}^{1}((b_{j}^{1}, b_{i}^{1})) + z_{j}^{2}((b_{j}^{2}, b_{i}^{1})) \\ \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\Gamma}} z_{j}^{1}((b_{j}^{1}, b_{i}^{2})) + z_{j}^{2}((b_{j}^{2}, b_{i}^{2})) \end{array} \right)_{i=1,\dots,N_{\Gamma}} \\ = \left(\begin{array}{c} ((C(z^{1}, z^{2}), b_{i}^{1})) \\ ((C(z^{1}, z^{2}), b_{i}^{2})) \end{array} \right)_{i=1,\dots,N_{\Gamma}} \end{split}$$

Therefore, the computation of $\mathcal{A}z$ only requires the knowledge of the vector field $C(z^1, z^2)$ and not the explicit knowledge of \mathcal{A} itself. However, it also requires so far the knowledge of the basis $(b_i^1, b_i^2)_{i=1...N_{\Gamma}}$.

Let us now indicate how to avoid the computation of b_i^k . We denote by w_i^1 (resp. w_i^2) the vector field of $(X^h)^3$ which takes the value zero at all the nodes of Ω_h except at the node *i* of Γ_h where it takes the value t_1 (resp. t_2). The function w_i^k coincides with b_i^k on Γ_h , thus, in view of remark 4.1, $((C(z^1, z^2), b_i^k)) = ((C(z^1, z^2), w_i^k))$. Therefore we have

$$\mathcal{A}z = \left(\begin{array}{c} ((C(z^1, z^2), w_i^1)) + ((C(z^1, z^2), w_i^1)) \\ ((C(z^1, z^2), w_i^2)) + ((C(z^1, z^2), w_i^2)) \end{array} \right)_{i=1, \dots, N_{\Gamma}}$$
(4.12)

and

$$\beta = \begin{pmatrix} (f, w_i^1) - ((B_T, w_i^1)) - \langle k, w_i^1 \times n \rangle_{\Gamma} \\ (f, w_i^2) - ((B_T, w_i^2)) - \langle k, w_i^2 \times n \rangle_{\Gamma} \end{pmatrix}_{i=1,\dots,N_{\Gamma}}$$
(4.13)

Thus, step (4.2) of the conjugate gradient algorithm is replaced by the sequence

- compute the vector field $C(\Lambda_0^1, \Lambda_0^2)$ related to Λ_0 by solving (4.11).
- compute $\mathcal{A}\Lambda_0$ by (4.12).
- compute β by (4.13).

Likewise, step (4.4) is replaced by

- compute the vector field $C(z_n^1, z_n^2)$ related to z_n by solving (4.11).
- compute $\mathcal{A}z$ by (4.12).

The computation and the storage of matrix \mathcal{A} are therefore not necessary, but the price to pay for this saving in memory usage is an increase of the computational time due to the fact that three Poisson problems have to be solved on Ω_h at each step of the conjugate gradient algorithm.

Remark 4.2 Note that the three Poisson problems of each step of the conjugate gradient algorithm are independent and may easily be solved simultaneously on a parallel architecture.

5 Numerical results

In the sequel, the method of Section 3 will be referred to as the "direct method" and the algorithm presented in Section 4 will be referred to as the "uncoupled method". We have implemented these algorithms both in 2D and 3D with Q1 finite elements. The tests in two dimensions are the following :

1)
$$\Omega = [0,1]^2, B = (\sin(\pi x)\cos(\pi y)/\pi, -\cos(\pi x)\sin(\pi y)/\pi).$$

2)
$$\Omega = [-1, 1]^2$$
, $B = (-x^4y/12 + yx^2/2, x^3y^2/6 - x^5/60 - y^2x/2 + x)$

3) $\Omega = D(0, 1), B = (-y/2, x/2).$

where D(0, 1) denotes a disk with center (0, 0) and radius 1.

We present in Table 6.1 the results obtained on various meshes with the two methods. The relative error is computed in L^2 norm. Solutions are plotted on Figures 6.1, 6.2, 6.3 (p. 177 and s.).

		Uncoupled method		Direct method	
Test	Grid	Rel. error	$ \operatorname{div} B _{L^2}$	Rel. error	$ \operatorname{div} B _{L^2}$
1	20×20	.0020569	.0319320	.0020570	.0319320
	40×40	.0005141	.0160153	.0005140	.0160154
	80×80	.0001312	.0080139	.0001285	.0080138
2	20×20	.0073202	.0373165	.0073196	.0373145
	40×40	.0037708	.0196841	.0037711	.0196779
	80×80	.0019940	.0115525	.0019938	.0115325
3	$169 \mathrm{nodes}$.0086348	.0006356	.0086349	.0006352
	$649 \mathrm{nodes}$.0021503	.0007940	.0021503	.0007926
	2545 nodes	.0005400	.0006745	.0005400	.0006725

TAB. 6.1: Tests in two dimensions.

In three dimensions, the following cases have been considered :

4) $\Omega = [0, 1]^3$, $B = (\sin \pi x \cos \pi y \cos \pi z / \pi, -\cos \pi x \sin \pi y \cos \pi z / \pi, 0)$.

5)
$$\Omega = [0, 1]^3$$
, $B = \operatorname{curl}(g, g, g)$ with $g = 10^4 (xyz(x-1)(y-1)(z-1))^3$.

6) Ω = Cylinder with height 0.6 and cross section D(0,1), B = (-y/2, x/2, 0).

Table 6.2 and Figures 6.4, 6.5, 6.6 (p. 178 and s.) show the results we obtained in 3D.

We have used the Conjugate Gradient method with Incomplete Cholesky preconditioner to solve the linear systems in both methods. We emphasize that it is necessary to achieve a very good convergence in the resolution

		Uncoupled Method		Direct method	
Test	Grid	Rel. error	$ \operatorname{div} B _{L^2}$	Rel. error	$ \operatorname{div} B _{L^2}$
4	$5 \times 5 \times 5$.0331172	.0820945	.0331172	.0820946
	$10 \times 10 \times 10$.0082390	.0442373	.0082382	.0442374
	$20 \times 20 \times 20$.0020602	.0225329	.0020570	.0225329
5	$5 \times 5 \times 5$.2232074	.0664852	.2232074	.0664852
	$10 \times 10 \times 10$.0514764	.0491199	.0514764	.0491199
	$20 \times 20 \times 20$.0125658	.0269531	.0125658	.0269530
6	840 nodes	.0722001	.0325454	.0721998	.0325452
	$2560 \mathrm{nodes}$.0506948	.0150413	.0506958	.0150396
	5436 nodes	.0434860	.0101620	.0434856	.0101527

TAB. 6.2: Tests in three dimensions.

of linear systems into the loop of Glowinski-Pironneau conjugate gradient algorithm.

These tables show that the relative errors and the value of $||\operatorname{div} B||_{L^2}$ are almost the same for the two methods. The evolution of these values with the step of the grid is good. The only exceptions are the values of $||\operatorname{div} B||_{L^2}$ in test 3. Our understanding of this phenomena is rather poor, but we suspect it is due to the non regularity of the mesh on the disk.

In our examples and with our home-made code, the memory required by the uncoupled method is three (resp. six) times as small as the memory needed by the direct one in 2D (resp. in 3D). On the contrary, the CPU time required for the uncoupled method is about 1.5 times as large as the CPU time required for the direct method. But, as said above, the uncoupled algorithm can be easily treated on a parallel architecture. For the 3D tests, we have used three computers connected within a PVM network : each machine solves one of the three scalar Poisson problem and compute the third of the expression (4.12). The CPU time is then almost divided by a factor 2. The uncoupled method becomes therefore faster than the direct one.

Remark 5.1 The only limitation we see today to the use of the uncoupled algorithm is that it is not well-suited for problems involving a non homogeneous conductivity σ . In this case the equations (1.10)-(1.13) have to be replaced by (1.6)-(1.9). Current work is in progress on the subject but we can already suggest three tricks to treat the case when σ is not constant with the uncoupled method.

The first way is to split $\frac{1}{\sigma}$ curl B in a gradient and a solenoidal part :

$$\frac{1}{\sigma} \operatorname{curl} B = \operatorname{curl} A - \nabla \psi.$$

The unknown ψ is then determined by a scalar Poisson problem, A and B by a vector Poisson problem which can be solved by the uncoupled method.

The second way is to use the vector analysis relation

$$\operatorname{curl}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl}B\right) = \nabla \frac{1}{\sigma} \times \operatorname{curl}B + \frac{1}{\sigma}\operatorname{curl}\left(\operatorname{curl}B\right),$$

and to adopt an iterative strategy : the value B^{n+1} is determined by the resolution of a vector Poisson problem with $\sigma \nabla \frac{1}{\sigma} \times \operatorname{curl} B^n$ at the right hand side.

In the case when σ is constant over two subdomains Ω_1 and Ω_2 of Ω , a third way consists in solving a vector Poisson problem alternatively on the two subdomains. The boundary conditions on $\partial\Omega_1 \cap \partial\Omega_2$ deal with curl $B \times n$ and B.n for the problem set on Ω_1 and with div B and $B \times n$ for the problem set on Ω_2 .

6 Conclusion

We have proposed two approaches to solve a magnetostatic problem : a direct method, very natural, and an uncoupled algorithm, that draws its inspiration from methods exposed in [74] and [47] in other frameworks. We have studied the variational formulations and the numerical implementation for both approaches. Our numerical results show that the two methods are very similar in term of accuracy. In average the direct method is 1.5 times as fast as the uncoupled one. Conversely the memory required in 3D by the uncoupled method is 6 times as small as the memory needed by the direct one. In a very large problem, the uncoupled method is therefore more attractive. It is indeed all the more attractive since we have shown that the uncoupled algorithm can be straighforwardly used on a parallel architecture of three computers which roughly divides the CPU time by a factor of two.

In addition, we have briefly suggested three tricks to extend the uncoupled algorithm to the case when the electric conductivity is not constant over the domain. Nevertheless, we believe that in this non-homogeneous case, the direct method remains more natural.

In conclusion, our study shows that, in comparison with the direct resolution of the coupled system, the uncoupled method :

- is as accurate as the direct one,
- is far more attractive in term of memory storage,
- does not require a much longer CPU time.



FIG. 6.1: B field computed in test 1.



FIG. 6.2: B field computed in test 2.



FIG. 6.3: B field computed in test 3.



FIG. 6.4: B field computed in test 4.



FIG. 6.5: B field computed in test 5.



FIG. 6.6: B field computed in test 6.
Chapitre 7

Simulations numériques en MHD

Les simulations numériques présentées dans ce chapitre ont été effectuées sur un code académique écrit pendant la préparation de cette thèse. Le logiciel Fidap a été utilisé comme mailleur et pour le posttraitement.

1 Introduction

Nous nous intéressons dans ce chapitre à la résolution du problème stationnaire non linéaire suivant : trouver u, p et B tels que

$$\begin{cases}
\rho u.\nabla u - \eta \Delta u + \nabla p + \frac{1}{\mu}B \times \operatorname{rot} B = \rho f, \\
\operatorname{div} u = 0, \\
\frac{1}{\mu\sigma}\operatorname{rot}(\operatorname{rot} B) - \operatorname{rot}(u \times B) = 0, \\
\operatorname{div} B = 0.
\end{cases}$$
(1.1)

avec les conditions aux limites :

Ś

$$\begin{cases} u|_{\Gamma} = u^{d}, \\ \frac{1}{\mu\sigma} \operatorname{rot} B \times n - (u \times B) \times n = k \times n, \\ B.n = q. \\ \begin{cases} u|_{\Gamma} = u^{d}, \\ B \times n = k \times n. \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

ou

Le problème de l'existence et l'unicité des solutions de ce système, avec les deux types de condition aux limites, a été étudié par M.D. Gunzburger, A.J. Meir and J.S. Peterson dans [50]. Comme pour les équations de Navier-Stokes stationnaires, l'unicité n'est établie que pour des données "assez petites". Dans la suite, nous supposerons que les conditions assurant l'unicité sont remplies.

M.D. Gunzburger *et al.* ont également étudié dans [50] l'approximation par éléments finis classiques du système stationnaire de la MHD. Nous proposerons au Chapitre 8 une approximation par éléments finis stabilisés du système linéarisé. L'objet de ce chapitre n'est pas la discrétisation des équations mais la résolution des non linéarités. Afin de ne pas alourdir la présentation, nous décrirons donc les algorithmes sur les équations continues. Nous ne rappellerons plus dans la suite les conditions aux limites qui, dans la pratique, sont traitées par pénalisation (voir Chapitre 6).

Plusieurs algorithmes ont déjà été proposés dans la littérature pour traiter les non linéarités des équations stationnaires de la MHD. Ils sont essentiellement de deux types : ceux dans lesquels les équations sont résolues de manière couplée, et ceux où les problèmes de Navier-Stokes et de Maxwell sont traités successivement. On trouvera dans M.D. Gunzburger *et al.* [50, 49] des preuves de convergence pour certains algorithmes. Néanmoins, nous n'avons pas trouvé dans la littérature de tests numériques sur des cas concrets (excepté dans F. Armero et J.C. Simo [4] pour les équations instationnaires).

Ce chapitre est organisé comme suit. Nous commençons par établir une forme adimensionnelle des équations de la MHD. Puis nous décrivons trois algorithmes couplés que nous avons utilisés (méthode de point fixe de Picard, méthode de Newton-Raphson et un schéma implicite pour les équations transitoires). Nous présentons ensuite des expériences numériques et nous terminons sur quelques remarques concernant deux algorithmes découplés.

2 Forme adimensionnelle

On se donne les grandeurs caractéristiques suivantes : une vitesse U_0 , une longueur L, un champ magnétique B_0 . On rappelle que ρ désigne la masse volumique du fluide, η sa viscosité dynamique, σ sa conductivité électrique, et μ la perméabilité magnétique du vide.

On introduit alors les grandeurs adimensionnelles suivantes :

Nombre de Reynolds :
$$Re = \frac{\rho U_0 L}{\eta}$$
,
Nombre de Reynolds magnétique : $Rm = \mu \sigma U_0 L$,
Paramètre de couplage : $S = \frac{B_0^2}{\mu \rho U_0^2}$.

On note \tilde{u} , \tilde{B} , \tilde{p} et f les grandeurs physiques intervenant dans le système (1.1). On introduit les grandeurs adimensionnelles $u = \tilde{u}/U_0$, B = $\tilde{B}/B_0, \ p = \tilde{p}/\rho U_0^2$ et $f = \tilde{f}L/u_0^2$. Le système de la MHD s'écrit alors :

$$u \cdot \nabla u - \frac{1}{Re} \Delta u + \nabla p + SB \times \operatorname{rot} B = f,$$

$$\operatorname{div} u = 0,$$

$$\frac{1}{Rm} \operatorname{rot} (\operatorname{rot} B) - \operatorname{rot} (u \times B) = 0,$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0.$$

On rencontre également dans la littérature MHD les nombres suivants :

Nombre de Hartmann :
$$Ha = \sqrt{Re Rm S} = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma}{\eta}}BL$$
,
Nombre d'Alfvén : $A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{S}} = \sqrt{\mu\rho}\frac{U_0}{B_0}$.

Pour fixer les idées, voici les valeurs approximatives de ces paramètres adimensionnels dans quelques situations physiques (voir R. Berton [13]) :

	Soleil	Générateur	Propulseur	Pompe	Electrolyse
		MHD	MHD	électromag.	de l'aluminium
Fluide	plasma	mercure	eau salée	sodium	aluminium fondu
Re	10^{12}	10^{6}	10^{6}	3.10^{5}	10^{5}
Rm	10^{5}	10^{-1}	10^{-6}	3.10^{-1}	10^{-1}
S	2.10^{2}	10^{2}	10^{4}	2.10^{-1}	1
A	7.10^{-2}	2.10^{-1}	10^{-2}	2	1
Ha	5.10^{9}	2.10^{3}	10^{2}	2.10^{2}	10^{2}

3 Résolution couplée des équations de la MHD

Les algorithmes présentés ici ne sont pas originaux (voir [49] et [50]), nous ne les rappelons que pour la cohérence du texte.

3.1 Algorithme de point fixe de Picard.

On considère l'application T qui à $(\overline{u}, \overline{B})$ associe la solution (u, B) du problème linéaire

$$\begin{cases} \overline{u}.\nabla u - \frac{1}{Re} \Delta u + \nabla p + S \overline{B} \times \operatorname{rot} B &= f, \\ \operatorname{div} u &= 0, \\ \frac{1}{Rm} \operatorname{rot} (\operatorname{rot} B) - \operatorname{rot} (u \times \overline{B}) &= 0, \\ \operatorname{div} B &= 0. \end{cases}$$

Toute solution du problème couplé est un point fixe de cette application, c'est-à-dire un couple (u, B) tel que T(u, B) = (u, B). En supposant connu (u^n, B^n) , une approximation de (u, B), on calcule (u^{n+1}, B^{n+1}) en posant

$$(u^{n+1}, B^{n+1}) = T(u^n, B^n).$$

Autrement dit, on résout à chaque itération :

$$\begin{aligned} u^{n} \cdot \nabla u^{n+1} - \frac{1}{Re} \Delta u^{n+1} + \nabla p^{n+1} + S B^{n} \times \operatorname{rot} B^{n+1} &= f, \\ \operatorname{div} u^{n+1} &= 0, \\ \frac{1}{Rm} \operatorname{rot} \left(\operatorname{rot} B^{n+1} \right) - \operatorname{rot} \left(u^{n+1} \times B^{n} \right) &= 0, \\ \operatorname{div} B^{n+1} &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

On peut noter que cet algorithme a la propriété de conserver l'énergie du système. En effet, en multipliant la première équation par u^{n+1} , la deuxième par B^{n+1} et en intégrant on obtient (en supposant les données aux bords nulles pour simplifier) :

$$\frac{1}{Re} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u^{n+1}|^2 \, dx + \frac{1}{Rm} \int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{rot} B^{n+1}|^2 \, dx + \int_{\Omega} u^n \cdot \nabla u^{n+1} \cdot u^{n+1} \, dx + \int_{\Omega} B^n \times \operatorname{rot} B^{n+1} \cdot u^{n+1} + \operatorname{rot} (u^{n+1} \times B^n) \cdot B^{n+1} \, dx = \int_{\Omega} f \cdot u^{n+1} \, dx.$$

Le terme $\int_{\Omega} u^n \cdot \nabla u^{n+1} \cdot u^{n+1} dx$ est nul quand u^{n+1} est à divergence nulle ou quand on prend soin d'antisymétriser le terme de convection. Le terme $\int_{\Omega} B^n \times \operatorname{rot} B^{n+1} \cdot u^{n+1} + \operatorname{rot} (u^{n+1} \times B^n) \cdot B^{n+1} dx$ s'annule même quand B^{n+1} n'est pas exactement à divergence nulle. On a ainsi numériquement

$$\frac{1}{Re} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u^{n+1}|^2 \, dx + \frac{1}{Rm} \int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{rot} B^{n+1}|^2 \, dx = \int_{\Omega} f \cdot u^{n+1} \, dx.$$

Cette propriété garantit donc que la force de Laplace n'apporte pas au système d'énergie parasite due à la discrétisation.

Remarquer qu'on a linéarisé le système de la même manière lors de la preuve d'existence de solution pour le système de la MHD avec densité variable (Chapitre 2) : la "conservation de l'identité d'énergie" a alors été très utile pour établir les mêmes estimations que dans le cas non linéaire. Cette propriété sera à nouveau utilisée au Chapitre 8.

3.2 Algorithme de Newton-Raphson.

La résolution du système stationnaire peut être vue comme la résolution d'une équation non linéaire de type F(u, B) = 0. Notons $X^n = (u^n, B^n)$ une approximation de (u, B) et $F'(X^n)$ la matrice jacobienne de F au point X^n . La méthode de Newton-Raphson consiste à déterminer X^{n+1} en résolvant le problème linéaire :

$$F'(X^n)X^{n+1} = F'(X^n)X^n - F(X^n)$$

Ce qui s'écrit dans notre cas :

$$u^{n} \cdot \nabla u^{n+1} + u^{n+1} \cdot \nabla u^{n}$$

$$-\frac{1}{Re} \Delta u^{n+1} + \nabla p^{n+1} +$$

$$+S B^{n} \times \operatorname{rot} B^{n+1} + S B^{n+1} \times \operatorname{rot} B^{n} = f + u^{n} \cdot \nabla u^{n} + S B^{n} \times \operatorname{rot} B^{n},$$

$$\operatorname{div} u^{n+1} = 0,$$

$$\frac{1}{Rm} \operatorname{rot} \operatorname{rot} B^{n+1} - \operatorname{rot} (u^{n+1} \times B^{n})$$

$$-\operatorname{rot} (u^{n} \times B^{n+1}) = -\operatorname{rot} (u^{n} \times B^{n}),$$

$$\operatorname{div} B^{n+1} = 0.$$

Le comportement des algorithmes de point fixe de Picard et de Newton-Raphson est similaire à celui que l'on observe sur le système de Navier-Stokes seul : la méthode de point fixe converge pour une donnée initiale assez éloignée de la solution mais cette convergence est lente, l'algorithme de Newton converge rapidement mais à condition d'être proche de la solution. Ils se complètent donc très bien : une bonne stratégie consiste le plus souvent à effectuer entre 3 et 5 itérations de point fixe pour amorcer la convergence, puis terminer avec l'algorithme de Newton. Cette stratégie est parfois même nécessaire : il y a des cas où la méthode de point fixe oscille "indéfiniment" et l'algorithme de Newton diverge, alors qu'un panachage des deux permet de converger rapidement.

Ces algorithmes très classiques sont suffisants pour les tests présentés ici. Des méthodes non linéaires plus fines (voir par exemple C.T. Kelley [57]) pourront être envisagées dans des travaux futurs.

3.3 Algorithme transitoire.

Nous avons également utilisé le schéma transitoire classique suivant. Notons δt le pas de temps et (u^n, p^n, B^n) la valeur des inconnues à l'instant t_n .

$$\begin{cases} \frac{u^{n+1} - u^n}{\delta t} + u^n \cdot \nabla u^{n+1} - \frac{1}{Re} \Delta u^{n+1} + \nabla p^{n+1} + S B^n \times \operatorname{rot} B^{n+1} &= f, \\ \operatorname{div} u^{n+1} &= 0, \\ \frac{B^{n+1} - B^n}{\delta t} + \frac{1}{Rm} \operatorname{rot} \left(\operatorname{rot} B^{n+1} \right) - \operatorname{rot} \left(u^{n+1} \times B^n \right) &= 0, \\ \operatorname{div} B^{n+1} &= 0. \end{cases}$$

Ce schéma est étudié par F. Armero et J.C. Simo dans [4]. Il est implicite, linéaire et d'ordre 1. Il possède de plus la propriété de dissiper aussi bien l'énergie du système que les équations continues – au moins en dimension 2 (voir [4]). Il a donc un bon comportement en temps long et est par conséquent bien adapté à des calculs d'états stationnaires.

Nous avons constaté qu'une bonne stratégie pour calculer un état stationnaire est d'approcher la solution avec l'algorithme transitoire puis d'achever la convergence avec l'algorithme de Newton-Raphson.

4 Cas tests pour la MHD

Nous présentons dans cette section quelques expériences qui nous ont servi de cas tests. Plusieurs d'entre elles proviennent de la littérature MHD (R. Moreau [70] ou W.F. Hughes et F.J. Young [55]). Les résultats des calculs qui illustrent ces expériences ont été obtenus par les algorithmes de point fixe et de Newton-Raphson (sauf l'écoulement autour d'un cylindre), avec des éléments finis Q1/P0 ou Q2/P1. Les systèmes linéaires sont résolus par GMRES préconditionné par une factorisation LU incomplète¹.

4.1 Ecoulements de Hartmann en 2D



FIG. 7.1: u entre deux plans parfaitement isolants, Ha = 10.

Les écoulements de Hartmann sont l'extension à la MHD des écoulements de Poiseuille de la mécanique des fluides. On considère une tuyère 2D plongée dans un champ magnétique transverse (voir Figure 7.1 et 7.2). On impose à l'entrée et à la sortie de la tuyère des conditions sur le flux de façon à ce que le gradient de pression adimensionné soit égal à -G. On vérifie sans peine que le champ de pression est alors donné par

$$p(x,y) = -Gx - Sb^2(y)/2 + p_0.$$

¹Pour le stockage et la résolution des systèmes linéaires, nous avons utilisé les bibliothèques **Sparselib++** et IML++ de Roldan Pozo, http://math.nist.gov/pozo/.



FIG. 7.2: B entre deux plans parfaitement isolants, Ha = 10.

Le champ de vitesse et le champ magnétique sont de la forme u = (u(y), 0, 0)et B = (b(y), 1, 0) où u(y) et b(y) sont les solutions du système

$$u''(y) + Re S b'(y) = -G Re, b''(y) + Rm u'(y) = 0.$$
(4.1)

Les conditions aux limites hydrodynamiques sont classiques : vitesse nulle sur les parois et conditions sur le flux à l'entrée et la sortie.

Pour les conditions aux limites magnétiques, on envisage les deux situations suivantes :

1. Parois parfaitement conductrices.

Sur les parois conductrices, le courant électrique est normal, on a donc rot $B \times n = 0$. A l'entrée et la sortie, on impose au courant tangentiel d'être égal à la partie tangentielle du courant induit $u \times B$. La partie normale du champ magnétique est connue et égale à $B^d \cdot n$. Les conditions aux limites sont par conséquent :

$$\begin{cases} \frac{1}{Rm} \operatorname{rot} B \times n - (u \times B) \times n &= 0\\ B \cdot n &= B^d \cdot n. \end{cases}$$

L'intégration analytique du système (4.1) fournit alors

$$u(y) = \frac{G R e}{H a^2} \left(1 - \frac{\cosh(y H a)}{\cosh(H a)} \right),$$



FIG. 7.3: u et B théoriques et calculés (points), parois conductrices, 2D.



FIG. 7.4: u et B théoriques et calculés (points), parois isolantes, 2D.

$$b(y) = \frac{G}{S} \left(\frac{\sinh(y H a)}{H a \cosh(H a)} - y \right).$$

La Figure 7.3 montre que les résultats numériques obtenus coïncident parfaitement avec la solution analytique.

2. Parois parfaitement isolantes.

Remarquons que la composante normale du courant dans le repère local est égale à $\partial_{t_1}B_{t_2} - \partial_{t_2}B_{t_1}$. Puisque dans le cas considéré, B^d sur le bord est constant, on modélise bien le fait que le courant électrique sur les parois est purement tangentiel en imposant la condition aux limites

$$B \times n = B^d \times n.$$

L'intégration analytique du système (4.1) donne

$$u(y) = \frac{GRe}{Ha\tanh(Ha)} \left(1 - \frac{\cosh(yHa)}{\cosh(Ha)}\right),$$

 et

$$b(y) = \frac{G}{S} \left(\frac{\sinh(y H a)}{\sinh(H a)} - y \right)$$

On constatera sur la Figure 7.4 que les résultats numériques coïncident encore très bien avec la solution analytique.

4.2 Ecoulements dans une tuyère en 3D

On considère à présent un écoulement dans une tuyère d'axe Ox dont la section dans le plan (Oy, Oz) est un rectangle de côtés $2y_0$ et $2z_0$. Comme dans l'écoulement de Hartmann en 2D, l'écoulement est provoqué par un gradient de pression entre l'entrée et la sortie de la tuyère et celle-ci est plongée dans un champ magnétique transverse dont la valeur adimensionnée est $B^d = (0, 1, 0)$ (voir Figure 7.6). Le champ de vitesse et alors de la forme u = (u(y, z), 0, 0) et le champ magnétique B = (b(y, z), 1, 0), où u et b satisfont le système d'équations aux dérivées partielles :

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} + Re S \frac{\partial b}{\partial y} &= -GRe, \\ \frac{\partial^2 b}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 b}{\partial z^2} + Rm \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} &= 0. \end{cases}$$
(4.2)

En supposant les parois parfaitement isolantes, les conditions aux limites sont $u(\pm y_0, z) = u(y, \pm z_0) = 0$ et $b(\pm y_0, z) = b(y, \pm z_0) = 0$.

L'intégration de (4.1) se fait en recherchant u et b sous la forme de séries de Fourier en z. Pour être complet, voici la solution analytique obtenue après calculs :

$$u(y,z) = -\frac{1}{2}G \operatorname{Re} (z^2 - z_0^2) + \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} u_n(y) \cos(\lambda_n z),$$

 et



FIG. 7.5: u, parois isolantes, 3D, Ha = 5.

$$b(y,z) = \sum_{n=0}^{+\infty} b_n(y) \cos(\lambda_n z),$$

avec

$$\lambda_n = \frac{(2n+1)\pi}{2z_0},$$

>

.

$$u_n(y) = A_n \cosh(p_1 y) + B_n \cosh(p_2 y),$$

$$b_n(y) = \frac{1}{Re S} \left[A_n \frac{\lambda_n^2 - p_1^2}{p_1} \sinh(p_1 y) + B_n \frac{\lambda_n^2 - p_2^2}{p_2} \sinh(p_2 y) \right],$$

$$p_{1,2}^2 = \lambda_n^2 + Ha^2/2 \pm Ha \sqrt{\lambda_n^2 + Ha^2/4},$$

$$A_n = \frac{-p_1(\lambda_n^2 - p_2^2)}{\Delta_n} u_n(y_0) \sinh(p_2 y_0),$$

$$B_n = \frac{p_2(\lambda_n^2 - p_1^2)}{\Delta_n} u_n(y_0) \sinh(p_1 y_0),$$

$$\Delta_n = p_2(\lambda_n^2 - p_1^2) \sinh(p_1 y_0) \cosh(p_2 y_0) - p_1(\lambda_n^2 - p_2^2) \sinh(p_2 y_0) \cosh(p_1 y_0).$$

Les solutions présentées sur la Figure 7.7 montrent une bonne cohérence entre valeurs numériques et analytiques. Noter que le maillage est plus grossier qu'en 2D, ce qui explique que les résultats soient un peu moins bons.



FIG. 7.6: B, parois isolantes, calcul 3D, Ha = 5.

4.3 Ecoulement autour d'un cylindre en 2D

Dans les expériences précédentes, la géométrie particulière du système fait que les termes non linéaires s'annulent. C'est d'ailleurs cette propriété qui nous a permis de calculer les solutions analytiquement. Nous allons à présent considérer une expérience où les non linéarités interviennent de facon essentielle : l'écoulement autour d'un cylindre en présence d'un champ magnétique transverse, comme dans les écoulements de Hartmann. Nous avons utilisé pour ce test l'algorithme transitoire présenté ci-dessus. La Figure 7.8 montre, en haut, un écoulement obtenu pour Re = 100 sans champ magnétique, en bas, le même écoulement en présence d'un champ magnétique (Rm = S = 1). Dans le cas sans champ magnétique, le champ de vitesse représenté est encore en phase transitoire (t = 310) et l'on constate la formation de deux tourbillons de Von Kármán. En revanche, l'écoulement MHD a atteint un état stationnaire (dès $t \approx 80$) et la zone de recirculation est très localisée derrière l'obstacle. Ceci illustre l'atténuation de la turbulence en présence d'un champ magnétique. Ce phénomène de la minarisation est souvent constaté en MHD (voir R. Moreau [70]).

Remarque 4.1 Cette expérience numérique est également proposée par F. Armero et J. C. Simo [4] à une petite variante près : ces auteurs se donnent des conditions aux limites de Dirichlet sur les deux composantes de B alors



FIG. 7.7: u et B théoriques et calculés (points) en z=0, parois isolantes, calcul $3\mathrm{D}.$





FIG. 7.8: Ecoulement 2D autour d'un cylindre : sans champ magnétique (en haut) et avec champ magnétique (en bas).

que nous prenons rot $B \times n = 0$ et $B \cdot n = B^d \cdot n$ avec $B^d = (0, 1)$.

Remarque 4.2 Remarquer qu'ici, le domaine n'est pas simplement connexe, alors que cette hypothèse est nécessaire pour assurer la coercivité de la forme bilinéaire (rot B, rot C) + (div B, div C) (par exemple, le champ magnétique créé par un conducteur filaire situé sur l'axe du cylindre n'est pas nul et vérifie $||rot B||_{L^2}^2 + ||div B||_{L^2}^2 = 0 \ sur \ \Omega$). Au regard des simulations numériques, il semble en revanche que le système couplé de la MHD soit bien inversible sur ce domaine. Nous n'avons pas examiné ce point plus en détail.

4.4 Ecoulement sur une marche en 2D

Il s'agit du même type d'expérience que l'écoulement autour d'un cylindre : un fluide passe au-dessus d'une marche en présence d'un champ magnétique transverse. On impose des conditions de Dirichlet sur la vitesse : zéro sur les parois horizontales et profils paraboliques de Poiseuille à l'entrée et à la sortie (remarquer qu'il serait plus judicieux d'imposer des profils de Hartmann, mais ceci ne modifie pas significativement le comportement qualitatif qui nous intéresse ici). La vitesse maximale à l'entrée est $u_{\infty} = 1$, le Reynolds est alors défini par $u_{\infty}h/\eta$, où h est la hauteur de la marche (voir O. Pironneau [73] par exemple). Pour le champ magnétique, on impose sur le bord $B \cdot n = B^d \cdot n$ avec $B^d = (0, 1)$ et $\frac{1}{Rm}$ rot $B \times n - (u \times B) \times n = 0$. Le test est réalisé avec les éléments Q2/P1 (les Q1/P0 donnent un champ

de pression franchement mauvais dans ce cas!). La Figure 7.9 montre, en haut, le résultat obtenu pour les équations de Navier-Stokes seules avec Re =100 et en bas, pour les équations de la MHD avec Re = 100, Rm = 0.125, S =8. On constate à nouveau une diminution de la recirculation en présence du champ magnétique.

4.5 Effet d'un circuit électrique sur un fluide conducteur en 3D

Nous envisageons ici l'influence d'un circuit électrique sur un fluide confiné dans un parallélépipède et traversé de haut en bas par un courant. Les lois de Biot et Savart permettent le calcul du champ magnétique créé par les conducteurs filaires et les courants traversant le fluide. C'est ce champ que l'on utilise pour les conditions aux limites dans le calcul MHD.

Sur les Figures 7.10, 7.11 et 7.12, on présente en haut les prédictions qualitatives proposées par J.M. Blanc et P. Entner [15] et en bas les résultats de nos calculs. Selon la configuration des conducteurs, on observe l'apparition d'un, deux ou quatre tourbillons conformément aux prédictions. Les calculs sont effectués en 3D avec des éléments Q1/P0.

r		
Vitesse (Re=100. pas de champ B)	VELOCITY VECTOR PLOT
		SCALE FACTOR
		0.5000E+02
		REFER. VECTOR
		→0.1000E+01
		MAX VEC PLOT'D
		0.1000E+01
		AT NODE 216
		COLOR CODE:
		VELOCITY
*******	******	-0.889E+00
******	****	-0 667E+00
	***************************************	-0.556E+00
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	-0 222F+00
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	-0.111E+00
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	[<u> </u>
		SCREEN LIMITS
		VMTN OFIE 00
		AUTIN - 2016-02
		XMAX 0.100E+01
		XMIN - 251E-02 XMAX 0.100E+01 YMIN - 321E+00
¥		XMIN - 251E-02 XMAX 0.100E+01 YMIN - 321E+00 YMAX 0.571E+00
ŕ		XMAX 0.100E+01 YMIN321E+00 YMAX 0.571E+00 FIDAP 7.52
Y A		XMAX 0.100E+01 YMIN321E+00 YMAX 0.571E+00 FIDAP 7.52



FIG. 7.9: Ecoulement 2D sur une marche : sans champ magnétique (en haut) et avec champ magnétique (en bas).



FIG. 7.10: Champ de vitesse prédit/calculé. Re=100, S=Rm=1 (calcul 3D, vue de dessus).





FIG. 7.11: Champ de vitesse prédit/calculé. Re=100, S=Rm=1 (calcul 3D, vue de dessus).



FIG. 7.12: Champ de vitesse prédit/calculé. Re=100, S=Rm=1 (calcul 3D, vue de dessus).

5 Quelques remarques sur les résolutions découplées

Pour des raisons évidentes d'encombrement en mémoire, ou dans l'optique du couplage entre deux codes de calcul, il est intéressant d'envisager la résolution découplée des équations de Maxwell et Navier-Stokes.

On pourrait considérer par exemple l'algorithme suivant

$$-\frac{1}{Re} \Delta u^{n+1} + \nabla p^{n+1} = f - u^n \cdot \nabla u^n - S B^n \times \operatorname{rot} B^n,$$

$$\frac{1}{Rm} \operatorname{rot} \left(\operatorname{rot} B^{n+1} \right) = \operatorname{rot} \left(u^n \times B^n \right).$$

Cet algorithme présente plusieurs avantages : non seulement les équations de Navier-Stokes et de Maxwell sont découplées, mais en plus les sytèmes sont symétriques et n'ont pas à être recalculés à chaque itération. Notons de plus que les équations de Maxwell peuvent être résolues par la méthode des matrices d'influence proposée au Chapitre 6 : la résolution du système de la MHD ne pourrait alors nécessiter que des résolutions successives de Laplacien scalaires.

Si l'intérêt en matière d'encombrement mémoire est évident, le comportement de ce type d'algorithme dans la pratique s'est révélé très décevant par rapport aux méthodes couplées (point fixe et Newton). Typiquement, pour les écoulements de Hartmann décrits au paragraphe 4.1, dès que les nombres adimensionnels Re, Rm ou Ha dépassent quelques unités, ce type de schéma diverge très vite à moins de partir d'une donnée initiale très proche de la solution ou de les relaxer fortement.

On peut diviser les algorithmes découplés en deux sous catégories : ceux qui ne nécessitent que des résolutions linéaires et ceux qui résolvent les équations non linéaires de Navier-Stokes à chaque itération (l'équation du champ magnétique est toujours linéaire quand on découple le problème). D'après les tests que nous avons effectués, résoudre un problème non linéaire à chaque itération pénalise beaucoup le temps de calcul et n'accélère pas significativement la convergence. Nous nous sommes donc concentrés sur les méthodes linéaires.

Nous avons effectué de nombreux tests avec plusieurs types d'algorithmes découplés. Nous proposons dans les deux sections suivantes quelques remarques sur les deux méthodes dont le comportement s'est révélé être le moins mauvais. Le premier algorithme est assez "naïf", le second est plus original et donne de meilleurs résultats.

5.1 Un premier algorithme découplé

Nous allons étudier l'algorithme suivant : soit $0 \leq \theta < 1$ un paramètre de relaxation, on suppose connu (u^n, B^n) , on détermine u^{n+1} par

$$-\frac{1}{Re} \Delta u^{n+1/2} + u^n \cdot \nabla u^{n+1/2} - \nabla p^{n+1} = f + S \operatorname{rot} B^n \times B^n,$$
$$u^{n+1} = \theta u^n + (1-\theta)u^{n+1/2}$$

puis B^{n+1} par

$$-\frac{1}{Rm} \operatorname{rot} \operatorname{rot} B^{n+1/2} - \operatorname{rot} (u^{n+1} \times B^{n+1/2}) = 0$$
$$B^{n+1} = \theta B^n + (1-\theta) B^{n+1/2}$$

Pour se faire une idée de la valeur du paramètre de relaxation, on procéde à une étude de stabilité sur la forme simplifiée que prennent les équations dans le cas des écoulements de Hartmann du paragraphe 4.1. Nous faisons l'hypothèse que les valeurs aux limites de u et B sont nulles et qu'il n'y a pas de terme de force. Dans ces conditions, nous dirons que le schéma est stable si l'on peut trouver une norme N(.) pour laquelle

$$N(u^{n+1}, b^{n+1}) \le N(u^n, b^n).$$
(5.1)

Proposition 16

On note C_P la constante de Poincaré et Ha le nombre de Hartmann. Dans la configuration géométrique des écoulements de Hartmann en 2D, quand le paramètre de relaxation θ satisfait

$$\left(1 + \frac{1}{C_P^2 H a^2}\right) - \sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{1}{C_P^2 H a^2}\right)^2 - 1} < \theta < 1,$$

l'algorithme découplé ci-dessus est stable au sens (5.1).

Preuve.

Dans la configuration géométrique des écoulements de Hartmann en 2D, nous avons u = (u(y), 0, 0) et B = (b(y), 1, 0). En éliminant $u^{n+1/2}$ et $B^{n+1/2}$, l'algorithme précédent s'écrit

$$\frac{\frac{1}{1-\theta}u_{n+1}'' - \frac{\theta}{1-\theta}u_n'' + \operatorname{Re} S b_n' = 0,}{\frac{1}{1-\theta}b_{n+1}'' - \frac{\theta}{1-\theta}b_n'' + \operatorname{Rm} u_{n+1}' = 0.}$$

En multipliant la première équation par u_{n+1} , puis la même équation par θu_n , en intégrant et en ajoutant, on obtient :

$$\frac{1}{1-\theta} \int |u'_{n+1}|^2 - \frac{\theta^2}{1-\theta} \int |u'_n|^2 - ReS \int b'_n u_{n+1} - ReS\theta \int b'_n u_n = 0.$$

En procédant de manière analogue avec la seconde équation, on a :

$$\frac{1}{1-\theta} \int |b'_{n+1}|^2 - \frac{\theta^2}{1-\theta} \int |b'_n|^2 - Rm \int u'_{n+1}b_{n+1} - Rm\theta \int u'_{n+1}b_n = 0.$$

En combinant ces deux équations de façon à faire disparaître les termes $\int b'_n u_{n+1}$ et $\int u'_{n+1} b_n$, on obtient finalement en divisant par Ha^2 :

$$N^{2}(u_{n+1}, b_{n+1}) - \theta^{2} N^{2}(u_{n}, b_{n}) = 0$$

avec

$$N^{2}(u,b) = \frac{\theta}{(1-\theta)ReS} \int |u'|^{2} + \frac{1}{(1-\theta)Rm} \int |b'|^{2} - \int u'b.$$

Les inégalités de Young et Poincaré permettent d'écrire

$$-\int u'b \ge -\frac{\theta}{2(1-\theta)ReS}\int |u'|^2 - \frac{(1-\theta)ReSC_P^2}{2\theta}\int |b'|^2,$$

d'où

$$N^{2}(u,b) \geq \frac{\theta}{2(1-\theta)ReS} \int |u'|^{2} + \left(\frac{1}{(1-\theta)Rm} - \frac{(1-\theta)ReSC_{P}^{2}}{2\theta}\right) \int |b'|^{2}.$$

Pour que N soit une norme, il est donc nécessaire que

$$\frac{1}{(1-\theta)Rm} - \frac{(1-\theta)ReSC_P^2}{2\theta} > 0.$$

Après calcul, on en déduit la condition sur θ énoncé dans la Proposition 16, ce qui achève sa preuve. \diamondsuit

Sur un intervalle de longeur 2l, la valeur de la constante de Poincaré est donnée par :

$$C_P = \frac{2l}{\pi}.$$

Voici quelques valeurs limites du paramètre de relaxation fournies par la formule de la Proposition 16 dans le cas d'une tuyère de largeur 2 :

Ha	1	5	10	20	50	100
θ	0.15	0.65	0.80	0.89	0.96	0.98

Les Figures 7.13, 7.14 et 7.15 montrent l'évolution du résidu en fonction du nombre d'itérations non linéaires pour des écoulements de Hartmann avec parois conductrices, avec respectivement Ha = 1, Ha = 5, Ha = 10 (dans chaque cas Re = Rm et S = 1), et avec une donnée initiale nulle. Les courbes marquées "P." correspondent au point fixe de Picard, "P./N.R." à la stratégie point fixe de Picard puis Newton-Raphson, les autres ont été obtenues par

l'algorithme découplé avec le paramètre de relaxation indiqué sur la courbe. Faisons quelques remarques sur ces résultats.

On peut tout d'abord noter une bonne adéquation entre les résultats observés avec les différents paramètres de relaxation et la valeur optimale prévue par la proposition ci-dessus : la convergence est en effet plus rapide quand on prend pour la relaxation une valeur voisine de celles figurant dans le tableau ci-dessus. Ceci est au moins vrai pour l'écoulement de Hartmann, mais peut cependant varier d'une expérience à l'autre. Nous insistons donc sur le fait que le modeste argument théorique de la Proposition 16 ne prétend nullement donner une formule fournissant dans tous les cas un paramètre de relaxation optimal. D'autant plus que dans ces cas d'école, nous avons choisi de prendre Re = Rm et un même paramètre de relaxation pour les deux équations, alors que dans des cas réalistes Re et Rm sont très différents et il est probablement plus optimal de relaxer différemment les équations de Navier-Stokes et celles de Maxwell.

Il faut ensuite rappeler qu'une itération de Picard ou de Newton est plus coûteuse qu'une itération de l'algorithme découplé. Pour fixer les idées, supposons que les matrices soient pleines et qu'on résolve les systèmes linéaires par factorisation LU (pour un système de taille $n \times n$, il y a donc environ $2n^3/3$ opérations). Si N est le nombre de noeuds du maillage et si on utilise des éléments Q1/P0, on a à résoudre, en 2D, un système de taille $5N \times 5N$ (approximativement) à chaque itération couplée et deux systèmes de taille $3N \times 3N$ et $2N \times 2N$ à chaque itération découplée. Ainsi, pour une itération de Picard ou de Newton on effectue environ $250/3N^3$ opérations et pour une itération de l'algorithme découplé environ $70/3N^3$ opérations. Ainsi, sous l'hypothèse des matrices pleines résolues par factorisation LU, l'algorithme couplé doit converger approximativement en 3,5 fois moins d'itérations non linéaires que la méthode découplée pour être réellement compétitif. Les courbes de convergence montrent que c'est généralement le cas (pour Ha = 5 et Ha = 10). Dans la pratique, nous utilisons en réalité GMRES préconditionné par factorisation LU incomplète. A titre d'exemple, dans le cas de la Figure 7.15, il a fallu, pour la totalité de la résolution non linéaire, 3 000 itérations linéaires sur les matrices $5N \times 5N$ avec la méthode de Picard et, pour la méthode découplée, 18000 itérations sur les matrice de Navier-Stokes $3N \times 3N$ et 2000 sur les matrice de Maxwell $2N \times 2N$.

En conclusion, même si dans certains cas (Ha petit) on peut trouver un paramètre de relaxation qui rende la méthode découplée plus efficace que l'algorithme de Picard ou Newton, les algorithmes couplés sont généralement plus stables et plus rapides, aussi bien en nombre d'itérations non linéaires qu'en temps de calcul.



FIG. 7.13: Evolution du résidu, Ha = 1, $relax_{theo} = 0.15$



FIG. 7.14: Evolution du résidu, Ha = 5, $relax_{theo} = 0.65$



FIG. 7.15: Evolution du résidu, Ha = 10, $relax_{theo} = 0.8$

5.2 Une formulation alternative

Dans les algorithmes précédents, nous avons écrit la force de Laplace $j \times B = \frac{1}{\mu}$ rot $B \times B$. A notre connaissance, c'est d'ailleurs ce qui a toujours été fait dans la littérature (voir M.D. Gunzburger *et al.* [50, 49], F. Armero et J.C. Simo [4], M. Sermange et R. Temam [83], J.-M. Domingez de la Rasilla [28]).

Une alternative consiste à exprimer la densité de courant j par la loi d'Ohm

$$j = \sigma(E + u \times B),$$

plutôt que par l'équation de Maxwell-Ampère $\mu j = \operatorname{rot} B$. Puisqu'on s'intéresse aux équations stationnaires, le champ électrique E dérive d'un potentiel électrique Φ . La force de Laplace s'écrit donc $\sigma(u \times B) \times B - \sigma \nabla \Phi \times B$

Une partie de la force de Laplace $\sigma(u \times B) \times B$ peut alors figurer dans le membre de gauche des équations de Navier-Stokes, même quand on découple le système. En contrepartie, il est nécessaire de calculer le potentiel électrique Φ à chaque itération (mais il s'agit d'un problème de Poisson scalaire qui se résout très rapidement).

Voici le schéma découplé qui résulte de ces remarques : supposons u^n ,

 B^n et Φ^n connus, on commence par résoudre l'équation de Maxwell :

$$\frac{1}{Rm} \operatorname{rot} \left(\operatorname{rot} B^{n+1} \right) = \operatorname{rot} \left(u^n \times B^n \right).$$

Remarquer qu'on peut par exemple résoudre cette équation par la méthode des matrices d'influence du Chapitre 6. Une fois connu B^{n+1} , on résout l'équation du potentiel électrique :

$$\operatorname{div}(Rm\nabla\Phi^{n+1}) = \operatorname{div}(Rm\,u^n \times B^{n+1}),$$

avec la condition de Neumann

$$Rm \frac{\partial \Phi^{n+1}}{\partial n} = Rm u^n \times B^{n+1} . n - \operatorname{rot} B^{n+1} . n,$$

puis l'équation de Navier-Stokes :

$$u^{n} \cdot \nabla u^{n+1} - \frac{1}{Re} \triangle u^{n+1} + \nabla p^{n+1} - S Rm(u^{n+1} \times B^{n+1}) \times B^{n+1} = f - S Rm \nabla \Phi^{n+1} \times B^{n+1}.$$

Nous représentons sur la Figure 7.16 l'historique de la convergence de cet algorithme (courbe notée "Ohm") pour l'écoulement de Hartmann 2D avec parois conductrices, Ha = Rm = Re = 10, S = 1. Nous rappelons également sur cette figure les résultats de la Figure 7.15. Le résultat est assez spectaculaire puisque la convergence de l'algorithme découplé est aussi rapide que celle obtenue avec l'algorithme de point fixe. Ceci est néanmoins un peu faussé par la géométrie très particulière de l'expérience : on peut en effet vérifier que, dans ce cas, le second membre $\nabla \Phi^{n+1} \times B^{n+1}$ est nul, ce qui favorise l'algorithme découplé.

La Figure 7.17 montre l'historique de la convergence pour l'expérience 3D d'un fluide traversé par un courant en présence de deux conducteurs (voir Section 4.5 et Figure 7.10) avec Re = 100, Rm = S = 1. Cette fois, la configuration est suffisament complexe pour qu'aucun terme ne dégénère. La courbe notée "relax" correspond à l'algorithme relaxé de la section précédente (c'est la convergence la plus rapide que nous ayons obtenue, il est néanmoins possible qu'en "tâtonnant" on trouve des paramètres de relaxation qui donnent de meilleurs résultats). L'algorithme découplé fondé sur la loi d'Ohm (courbe notée "ohm") converge en un peu plus d'itérations non linéaires que les algorithmes couplés mais il est compétitif en nombre d'opérations. Parmi les algorithmes découplés que nous avons envisagés, celui-ci semble donc être le plus convaincant.

Nous n'appronfondirons pas plus ici ces quelques remarques sur les méthodes découplées. S'il s'avérait nécessaire de les utiliser, une analyse plus poussée s'imposerait.



FIG. 7.16: Evolution du résidu, écoulement de Hartmann 2D.



FIG. 7.17: Evolution du résidu, cas 3D en présence de conducteurs extérieurs.

Chapitre 8

Eléments finis stabilisés pour la MHD

Comme pour le chapitre précédent, les simulations numériques présentées ici ont été effectuées sur un code académique écrit à l'occasion de cette thèse. Le logiciel Fidap a été utilisé comme mailleur et pour le posttraitement.

1 Introduction

L'objet de ce chapitre est de proposer une méthode d'approximation par éléments finis stabilisés des équations linéarisées de la MHD : on cherche un champ de vitesse u, une pression p et un champ magnétique B tels que

$$a \cdot \nabla u - \eta \Delta u + \nabla p + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} B = f, \qquad (1.1)$$

 $\operatorname{div} u = 0, \qquad (1.2)$

$$\alpha \operatorname{rot} (\operatorname{rot} B) - \operatorname{rot} (u \times b) = 0, \qquad (1.3)$$

$$\operatorname{div} B = 0. \tag{1.4}$$

Ces équations sont posées sur un ouvert convexe $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ de frontière Γ polyhédrique. Les champs a et b sont des champs de vecteur réguliers donnés et nous supposerons pour simplifier que div a = 0. Afin de ne pas alourdir la présentation, nous nous limitons aux conditions aux limites suivantes sur Γ :

$$u = 0, \tag{1.5}$$

$$B.n = 0, \tag{1.6}$$

$$\operatorname{rot} B \times n = 0. \tag{1.7}$$

C'est bien sûr une simplification importante que de considérer le système linéarisé plutôt que le problème non linéaire initial. Ceci est néanmoins justifié par le fait que c'est ce système que l'on traite numériquement quand on utilise, par exemple, un algorithme de point fixe pour résoudre les équations stationnaires de la MHD (voir Chapitre 7). Dans cette optique $u = u^{n+1}$, $B = B^{n+1}$, et *a* et *b* représentent la vitesse u^n et le champ magnétique b^n calculés à l'itération précédente (voir la Remarque 3.3)

Quand les variables sont adimensionnées, η (diffusion hydrodynamique) est l'inverse du nombre de Reynolds Re, α (diffusion électromagnétique) est l'inverse du nombre de Reynolds magnétique Rm, et S est le paramètre de couplage (voir p. 182). Dans le cadre physique qui nous intéresse, Re est de l'ordre de 10⁵ tandis que Rm et S sont de l'ordre de 1. Le régime est donc dominé par la convection pour le champ de vitesse u. C'est la première difficulté numérique du problème.

Une étude de la résolution des équations de la MHD stationnaires par la méthode classique des éléments finis est proposée dans M.D. Gunzburger, A.J. Meir et J.S. Peterson dans [50]. Il en ressort que les espaces d'approximation de la pression et de la vitesse doivent satisfaire la même condition inf-sup que pour le problème de Stokes. Ceci complique l'implémentation pratique de la méthode des éléments finis, plus particulièrement en 3D.

Les techniques d'éléments finis stabilisés ont été introduites au début des années 80 et ont été développées depuis dans de nombreux contextes. Ellles permettent d'améliorer la convergence dans l'équation d'advection-diffusion quand la convection est dominante, et d'utiliser des espaces d'interpolation identiques pour la vitesse et la pression dans le problème de Stokes. Elles peuvent donc offrir des réponses aux deux difficultés que l'on vient d'énoncer pour le problème de la MHD.

La Section 2 de ce chapitre présente les techniques de stabilisation pour l'équation d'advection-diffusion et le problème de Stokes. Elle a pour but d'introduire les idées principales de la méthode et de proposer quelques références bibliographiques.

Autant que nous le sachions, il n'existe pas dans la littérature d'étude de résolution par élément finis stabilisés des équations de la MHD. Nous en proposons une dans la Section 3.

Dans la dernière section, nous présentons quelques résultats numériques qui confirment l'intérêt des techniques de stabilisation pour notre problème.

Précisons à présent le cadre de ce travail. On considère un maillage \mathcal{T}_h de Ω , quasi-uniforme (voir par exemple P.G. Ciarlet [21]), composé d'éléments K pouvant être des tétraèdres ou des hexaèdres et satisfaisant les propriétés habituelles des maillages d'éléments finis. Le diamètre des éléments K est noté h_K et $h = \max\{h_K\}$. On considère l'espace classique X_h^k d'éléments finis lagrangiens défini par

$$X_h^k = \{ v_h \in C^0(\overline{\Omega}), v_h |_K \in P_k(K), \forall K \in \mathcal{T}_h \},\$$

quand les éléments K sont des tétraèdres ou

$$X_h^k = \{ v_h \in C^0(\overline{\Omega}), v_h |_K \in Q_k(K), \forall K \in \mathcal{T}_h \},\$$

quand les éléments K sont des hexaèdres. Un résultat classique de la théorie de l'approximation fournit une majoration de la différence entre $u \in H^{k+1}(K)$ et son interpolé $\Pi_h u$ dans X_h^k :

$$\begin{aligned} ||u - \Pi_h u||_{L^2(K)} + h_K ||\nabla (u - \Pi_h u)||_{L^2(K)} + h_K^2 ||\Delta (u - \Pi_h u)||_{L^2(K)} \\ &\leq C h_K^{k+1} |u|_{k+1,K}. \end{aligned}$$
(1.8)

On cherchera la vitesse u_h dans $V_h = (X_h^k \cap H_0^1(\Omega))^3$, la pression p_h dans $M_h = X_h^m \cap L_0^2(\Omega)$ (où $L_0^2(\Omega)$ désigne l'espace des fonctions de $L^2(\Omega)$ à moyenne nulle) et le champ magnétique dans $W_h = (X_h^l)^3 \cap \mathbb{H}_n^1(\Omega)$ (où $\mathbb{H}_n^1(\Omega)$ est l'espace des champs de vecteurs B de $H^1(\Omega)^3$ tels que B.n = 0 sur Γ). On utilisera l'inégalité inverse

$$\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_h}h_K^2\int_K|\Delta v_h|^2\,dx\leq d_0\int_{\Omega}|\nabla v_h|^2\,dx,\qquad\forall v_h\in V_h,\qquad(1.9)$$

où d_0 est une constante strictement positive indépendante de h.

Compte tenu des hypothèses faites sur Ω , on a l'inégalité suivante pour $B \in \mathbb{H}_n^1(\Omega)$ (voir V. Girault et P.A. Raviart[46], Théorème 3.9) :

$$\int_{\Omega} |\nabla B|^2 \, dx \le \int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{rot} B|^2 + |\operatorname{div} B|^2 \, dx \tag{1.10}$$

On utilisera les formules :

$$\int_{\Omega} |\operatorname{div} u|^2 \, dx \le 3 \int_{\Omega} |\nabla u|^2 \, dx, \tag{1.11}$$

et

$$\int_{\Omega} \operatorname{rot} B.C \, dx = \int_{\Omega} B.\operatorname{rot} C \, dx + \int_{\partial \Omega} n \times B.C \, dx. \tag{1.12}$$

2 Présentation des méthodes de stabilisation

L'objet de ce paragraphe est de montrer comment l'équation d'advectiondiffusion et le problème de Stokes sont résolus par les méthodes d'éléments finis stabilisés. Il n'y a pas de nouveauté ici et le but n'est pas de faire une présentation exhaustive mais de mettre en évidence les idées principales que nous réutiliserons dans la Section 3. Pour plus de détails, nous renvoyons à l'abondante littérature dont nous allons donner un aperçu.

L'article fondateur des méthodes d'élément finis stabilisés est celui de A.N Brooks et T.J.R Hughes [19] où la méthode "Streamline Upwind Petrov Galerkin" (SUPG) est présentée pour pallier les instabilités liées à une diffusion trop faible dans les équations d'advection-diffusion et de Navier-Stokes. On expose brièvement les idées de cet article dans le paragraphe 2.1.3. C. Johnson et J. Saranen étendent et analysent dans [56] une variante de SUPG qu'ils baptisent "Streamline Diffusion" (SD) et qu'ils appliquent aux équations de Navier-Stokes et d'Euler. D'autres méthodes du même type sont analysées et comparées par L.P. Franca, S.L. Frey et T.J.R Hughes [37] pour l'équation d'advection-diffusion.

T.J.R Hughes, L.P. Franca et M. Balestra utilisent des techniques semblables dans [54] pour résoudre numériquement le problème de Stokes en s'affranchissant de la condition inf-sup de Brezzi. J. Douglas et J. Wang [29] proposent une variante inconditionnellement stable.

L.P. Franca et S.L. Frey [36] étudient le problème de Navier-Stokes linéarisé. Dans leur approximation, la pression et la vitesse peuvent être approchées dans le même espace et, s'inspirant de l'étude menée dans [37] pour l'équation d'advection-diffusion, ils proposent des paramètres de stabilisation qui varient selon que le régime est dominé par la convection ou la diffusion. L'analyse d'une méthode de stabilisation pour les équations de Navier-Stokes (non linéarisées) est exposée dans Tian-Xiao Zhou et Min-Fu Feng [98].

2.1 L'équation d'advection-diffusion

On se propose d'étudier la résolution de l'équation d'advection-diffusion

$$-\eta \Delta u + a \nabla u = f \operatorname{sur} \Omega.$$
(2.1)

Il est bien connu que la méthode des éléments finis est mal adaptée à la résolution de ce problème quand la diffusion est dominée par la convection au niveau des mailles, autrement dit quand les rapports $||a||_{\infty,K}h_K/\eta$ sont grands. L'utilisation des méthodes de stabilisation permet d'améliorer la convergence dans ce cas.

On supposera pour simplifier que u = 0 sur Γ et que diva = 0. Pour une étude plus générale, dans le cas où a n'est pas à divergence nulle et en présence de terme d'ordre 0 en u, on pourra consulter A. Quarteroni et A. Valli [75].

Dans tout ce paragraphe V_h désigne l'espace d'éléments finis X_h^k . On introduit la forme bilinéaire

$$\Phi(w,v) = \eta \int_{\Omega} \nabla w \nabla v \, dx + \int_{\Omega} a \cdot \nabla w \, v \, dx,$$

et la forme linéaire

$$\langle F, v \rangle = \int_{\Omega} f v \, dx.$$

Noter que les hypothèses faites sur a impliquent

$$\int_{\Omega} a \cdot \nabla u \, v \, dx = -\int_{\Omega} a \cdot \nabla v \, u \, dx. \tag{2.2}$$

Dans la suite, on notera u la solution du problème continu (2.1), \tilde{u} l'interpolé de u dans l'espace V_h , et u_h la solution du problème discrétisé par éléments finis, autrement dit :

$$\Phi(u_h, v_h) = \langle F, v_h \rangle, \forall v_h \in V_h.$$

$$(2.3)$$

On notera l'erreur d'interpolation $\pi_h = u - \tilde{u}_h$, l'erreur d'approximation $e_h = \tilde{u}_h - u_h$ et l'erreur globale $\epsilon_h = u - u_h$. On a la relation $\epsilon_h = \pi_h + e_h$.

2.1.1 Rappel sur la convergence de la méthode des éléments finis

Nous rappelons ici l'étude de l'erreur dans la méthode des éléments finis de façon à mettre en évidence les problèmes qui peuvent apparaître quand les phénomènes de convection l'emportent sur la diffusion.

La solution u du problème continu est solution du problème discret :

$$\Phi(u, v_h) = \langle F, v_h \rangle, \forall v_h \in V_h \qquad \text{(consistance "forte")}.$$

D'où, par soustraction avec (2.3):

$$\Phi(\epsilon_h, v_h) = 0, \forall v_h \in V_h \qquad \text{(linéarité)}.$$

Or $\epsilon_h = \pi_h + e_h$, on a donc en particulier pour $v_h = e_h$:

$$\Phi(e_h, e_h) = -\Phi(\pi_h, e_h). \tag{2.4}$$

La forme bilinéaire Φ satisfait les propriétés suivantes :

$$\alpha ||e_h||_{H^1}^2 \le \Phi(e_h, e_h) \qquad \text{(coercivité)},$$

et

$$\Phi(\pi_h, e_h) \le c_0 ||\pi_h||_{H^1} ||e_h||_{H^1} \qquad \text{(continuité)}.$$

On déduit donc de (2.4) et de l'estimation d'erreur d'interpolation que

$$||e_h||_{H^1} \le \frac{c_0}{\alpha} ||\pi_h||_{H^1} \le C \frac{c_0}{\alpha} |u|_{k+1} h^k.$$

Cette majoration montre la convergence de la méthode. Néanmoins, quand la convection devient dominante, le rapport de la constante de continuité sur la constante de coercivité peut être très grand et l'estimation de l'erreur devient mauvaise. Précisons un peu ceci. En utilisant la propriété d'antisymétrie (2.2), l'égalité (2.4) implique :

$$\begin{split} \eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla e_{h}|^{2} dx &\leq \eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \pi_{h}| |\nabla e_{h}| \, dx + \int_{\Omega} |a| |\nabla e_{h}| |\pi_{h}| \, dx \\ &\leq \frac{\eta}{4} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla e_{h}|^{2} \, dx + \eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \pi_{h}|^{2} \, dx + \frac{\eta}{4} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla e_{h}|^{2} \, dx \\ &+ \frac{||a||_{\infty}^{2}}{\eta} \int_{\Omega} |\pi_{h}|^{2} \, dx. \end{split}$$

On en déduit :

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla e_{h}|^{2} dx \leq \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \pi_{h}|^{2} dx + \frac{||a||_{\infty}^{2}}{\eta^{2}} \int_{\Omega} |\pi_{h}|^{2} dx \\
\leq C \left(1 + \frac{||a||_{\infty}^{2} h^{2}}{\eta^{2}}\right) |u|_{k+1}^{2} h^{2k}.$$

D'où l'estimation de l'erreur :

$$||\nabla e_h||_{\mathbb{L}^2} \le C\sqrt{1 + \frac{||a||_{\infty}^2 h^2}{\eta^2}} |u|_{k+1} h^k,$$
(2.5)

où C est une constante indépendante de h, a, u et η . Quand l'advection domine la diffusion à l'échelle des mailles, le rapport $||a||_{\infty}h/\eta$ est grand et cette estimation devient mauvaise. Ceci est confirmé par l'expérience numérique.

2.1.2 Convergence des formulations stabilisées

L'estimation de l'erreur dans la méthode de Galerkin repose sur quatre ingrédients : linéarité de l'équation, consistance forte de l'approximation, coercivité et continuité de la forme bilinéaire. Les méthodes d'éléments finis stabilisés sont des méthodes de Galerkin généralisées dans lesquelles la forme bilinéaire Φ de la formulation variationnelle est remplacée par une forme bilinéaire Φ_h dépendant du maillage et conservant les quatres propriétés précédentes.

On considère la forme bilinéaire définie sur $V_h \times V_h$:

$$\Phi_h(w,v) = \Phi(w,v) + \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_K \tau(-\eta \triangle w + a \cdot \nabla w) (\xi \eta \triangle v + a \cdot \nabla v) \, dx.$$
(2.6)

et la forme linéaire définie sur V_h par

$$\langle F_h, v \rangle = \int_{\Omega} f v \, dx + \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_K \tau f(\xi \eta \Delta v + a \cdot \nabla v) \, dx.$$
 (2.7)

Le coefficient τ est le paramètre de stabilisation. On le définit sur Ω par

$$\tau|_K = \tau_K \text{ avec } \tau_K(x) = \frac{\lambda h_K}{|a(x)|}, \qquad \forall x \in K$$

où λ est une constante strictement positive que l'on fixera plus tard pour assurer la stabilité de l'approximation. Suivant les méthodes, le paramètre ξ apparaissant dans (2.6) et (2.7) vaut -1 (méthode de Douglas-Wang, DWG), 0 ("Streamline Upwind Petrov Galerkin", SUPG) ou 1 ("Galerkin Least Square", GLS). Afin de la comparer avec (2.5), nous allons estimer l'erreur d'approximation, par exemple dans le cas GLS ($\xi = 1$). La solution discrète u_h du problème stabilisé satisfait par définition

$$\Phi_h(u_h, v_h) = \langle F_h, v_h \rangle, \forall v \in V_h.$$

Remarquer que la solution u du problème continu satisfait également cette relation. La propriété de consistance forte est donc bien conservée ce qui permet d'établir comme dans la méthode de Galerkin :

$$\Phi_h(e_h, e_h) = -\Phi_h(\pi_h, e_h).$$
(2.8)

L'étape suivante consiste à prouver la coercivité (qu'on appelle généralement *stabilité* dans ce contexte). L'ingrédient essentiel est ici l'inégalité inverse (1.9). On a, quand $\xi = 1$:

$$\Phi_h(v,v) = \eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla v|^2 \, dx + \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_K \tau |a \cdot \nabla v|^2 \, dx - \eta^2 \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_K \tau |\Delta v|^2 \, dx.$$

Or, on rappelle que l'on se place ici dans le cas où la convection domine au niveau de chaque maille, c'est-à-dire dans le cas où $|a(x)|h_K/\eta > 1$, pour tout $x \in K$. On a donc

$$\tau = \frac{\lambda h_K}{|a(x)|} \le \frac{\lambda h_K^2}{\eta},\tag{2.9}$$

d'où

$$\begin{split} \Phi_{h}(v,v) &\geq \eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla v|^{2} \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \tau |a \cdot \nabla v|^{2} \, dx - \lambda \eta \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} h_{K}^{2} \int_{K} |\Delta v|^{2} \, dx \\ &\geq \eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla v|^{2} \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \tau |a \cdot \nabla v|^{2} \, dx - \lambda \eta d_{0} \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} \int_{K} |\nabla v|^{2} \, dx \\ &\geq (1 - \lambda d_{0}) \eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla v|^{2} \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \tau |a \cdot \nabla v|^{2} \, dx. \end{split}$$

Ceci prouve la stabilité de l'approximation pour la norme

$$|\!|\!| v |\!|\!|^2 = \eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla v|^2 \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \tau |a \cdot \nabla v|^2 \, dx,$$

dès lors que l'on choisit la constante λ telle que $1 - \lambda d_0 > 0$. On constate au passage l'utilité de savoir évaluer la constante d_0 de l'inégalité inverse (1.9), voir L. Franca, S.L. Frey et T.J.R Hughes [37] et leur bibliographie pour des indications à ce sujet.

Etablissons à présent l'estimation de l'erreur. On supposera que la constante λ est choisie de façon à avoir :

$$\Phi_h(v,v) \ge \frac{\eta}{2} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla v|^2 \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \tau |a \cdot \nabla v|^2 \, dx. \tag{2.10}$$
Cette propriété de coercivité et (2.8) impliquent

$$\begin{split} \eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla e_{h}|^{2} dx + 2 \int_{\Omega} \tau |a \cdot \nabla e_{h}|^{2} dx &\leq 2 |\Phi_{h}(\pi_{h}, e_{h})| \\ &\leq 2\eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \pi_{h}| |\nabla e_{h}| dx + 2 \left| \int_{\Omega} a \cdot \nabla \pi_{h} e_{h} dx \right| \\ &+ 2 \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} \left| \int_{K} \tau (-\eta \bigtriangleup \pi_{h} + a \cdot \nabla \pi_{h}) (\eta \bigtriangleup e_{h} + a \cdot \nabla e_{h}) dx \right|. \end{split}$$

$$(2.11)$$

Estimons chaque terme du membre de droite de (2.11). Le premier ne pose pas de difficulté :

$$2\eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \pi_h| |\nabla e_h| \, dx \leq \frac{\eta}{6} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla e_h|^2 \, dx + 6\eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \pi_h|^2 \, dx.$$

C'est dans la manière de contrôler le terme de convection que réside tout l'intérêt de la méthode :

$$2\left|\int_{\Omega} a \cdot \nabla \pi_h e_h \, dx\right| = 2\left|\int_{\Omega} a \cdot \nabla e_h \pi_h \, dx\right| \le \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \tau |a \cdot \nabla e_h|^2 \, dx + 2 \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\tau} |\pi_h|^2 \, dx.$$

Pour estimer les termes restant, on utilise à nouveau (1.9) et (2.9) :

$$\begin{split} 2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\eta^{2}\tau|\Delta\pi_{h}||\Delta e_{h}|\,dx &\leq \sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\eta h^{2}\left(\frac{1}{6d_{0}}\int_{K}|\Delta e_{h}|^{2}\,dx+6d_{0}\lambda^{2}\int_{K}|\Delta\pi_{h}|^{2}\,dx\right)\\ &\leq \frac{\eta}{6}\int_{\Omega}|\nabla e_{h}|^{2}\,dx+6\eta d_{0}^{2}\lambda^{2}\int_{\Omega}|\nabla\pi_{h}|^{2}\,dx,\\ 2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau\eta|\Delta\pi_{h}||a\cdot\nabla e_{h}|\,dx &\leq \sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}2\eta^{2}\int_{K}\tau|\Delta\pi_{h}|^{2}\,dx+\frac{1}{2}\int_{K}\tau|a\cdot\nabla e_{h}|^{2}\,dx\\ &\leq 2\eta\lambda d_{0}\int_{\Omega}|\nabla\pi_{h}|^{2}\,dx+\frac{1}{2}\int_{\Omega}\tau|a\cdot\nabla e_{h}|^{2}\,dx,\\ 2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau\eta|\Delta e_{h}||a\cdot\nabla\pi_{h}|\,dx &\leq \sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\frac{\eta^{2}}{6\lambda d_{0}}\int_{K}\tau|\Delta e_{h}|^{2}\,dx+6\lambda d_{0}\int_{\Omega}\tau|a\cdot\nabla\pi_{h}|^{2}\,dx\\ &\leq \frac{\eta}{6}\int_{\Omega}|\nabla e_{h}|^{2}\,dx+6\lambda d_{0}\int_{\Omega}\tau|a\cdot\nabla\pi_{h}|^{2}\,dx, \end{split}$$

 et

$$2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_h}\int_K\tau|a\cdot\nabla e_h||a\cdot\nabla\pi_h|\,dx \leq \frac{1}{2}\int_\Omega\tau|a\cdot\nabla e_h|^2\,dx+2\int_\Omega\tau|a\cdot\nabla\pi_h|^2\,dx.$$

Finalement, (2.11) implique donc

$$\frac{\eta}{2} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla e_h|^2 dx + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \tau |a \cdot \nabla e_h|^2 dx \le C_1 \eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \pi_h|^2 dx + C_2 \int_{\Omega} \tau |a \cdot \nabla \pi_h|^2 dx + 2 \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\tau} |\pi_h|^2 dx,$$

avec $C_1 = 6 + 6d_0^2 \lambda^2 + 2d_0 \lambda$ et $C_2 = 2 + 6d_0 \lambda$. Utilisant (1.8), on en déduit :

$$\frac{\eta}{2} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla e_h|^2 \, dx + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \tau |a \cdot \nabla e_h|^2 \, dx \le C_3 \left(C_1 \eta + C_2 \lambda h ||a||_{\infty} + \frac{2||a||_{\infty} h}{\lambda} \right) h^{2k} |u|_{k+1}^2$$
(2.12)

En particulier, on a l'estimation suivante :

$$||\nabla e_h||_{\mathbb{L}^2} \le C\sqrt{1 + \frac{||a||_{\infty}h}{\eta}} |u|_{k+1}h^k, \qquad (2.13)$$

où C est une constante indépendante de h, a, u et η . On voit ainsi, en comparant (2.5) et (2.13), l'amélioration que peut apporter les méthodes de stabilisation quand le rapport $||a||_{\infty}h/\eta$ est grand. Noter que (2.12) fournit également un contrôle de la dérivée convective $a \cdot \nabla e_u$.

Remarque 2.1 Dans le cas où $||a||_{\infty}h/\eta < 1$ (diffusion dominante), la majoration (2.13) est moins bonne que celle obtenue avec la méthode de Galerkin non stabilisée. Une solution consiste à prendre dans les mailles K où la diffusion domine $\tau_K = \lambda h_K^2/\eta$; on retrouve alors une majoration analogue à (2.5) et le paramètre de stabilisation τ varie continument quand $||a||_{\infty}h/\eta$ passe par la valeur 1.

2.1.3 Le point de vue "Petrov-Galerkin"

La plus ancienne méthode de stabilisation est SUPG (Streamline Upwind Petrov Galerkin, A.N. Brooks et T.J.R. Hughes [19]). Les notions de "décentrage suivant les lignes de courants" et de méthode "Petrov-Galerkin" n'apparaissent pas très clairement dans la manière dont on a présenté les méthodes de stabilisation. Ce paragraphe a pour but de relier le point de vue "historique" et le point de vue "moderne" adopté dans le paragraphe précédent.

Le constat de départ est le suivant. Considérons l'équation 1D

$$-\eta u'' + au' = 0$$

avec a > 0. Une approximation par éléments finis correspond au schéma aux différences finis centré

$$-\eta \frac{u_{n+1} - 2u_n + u_{n-1}}{h^2} + a \frac{u_{n+1} - u_{n-1}}{2h} = 0$$

qui est instable si ah/η est grand. Une solution classique apportée à ce problème consiste à "décentrer" l'approximation du terme de convection, c'està-dire remplacer $(u_{n+1}-u_{n-1})/2h$ par $(u_n-u_{n-1})/h$ (car a > 0). Mais cette opération, simple à mettre en oeuvre en différences ou volumes finis, n'a pas de contrepartie évidente en éléments finis. On peut changer légèrement de point de vue en réécrivant ainsi le terme décentré :

$$\frac{u_n - u_{n-1}}{h} = \frac{u_{n+1} - u_{n-1}}{2h} - \frac{h}{2} \frac{u_{n+1} - 2u_n + u_{n-1}}{h^2}.$$

Le décentrage revient donc à ajouter une diffusion consistante en O(h) au schéma centré. Exprimée ainsi, l'idée se généralise facilement à la méthode des éléments finis et en plusieurs dimensions en remplaçant le problème initial par

$$-\eta \triangle u + a \cdot \nabla u - \frac{\lambda h}{2} \triangle u = 0.$$

Mais les résultats obtenus sont décevants : la méthode est par construction limitée à l'ordre 1 et elle est trop diffusive, plus particulièrement dans les directions perpendiculaires au flot. Pour n'ajouter de la diffusion que dans la direction du flot, on introduit le tenseur de diffusion $\epsilon_{ij} = \lambda h a_i a_j / |a|^2$ (où λ est une constante), et on résout :

$$-\eta \Delta u + a \cdot \nabla u - \operatorname{div}\left(\epsilon_{ij} \nabla u\right) = 0,$$

dont la formulation variationnelle est :

$$\eta \int_{\Omega} \nabla u \cdot \nabla v \, dx + \int_{\Omega} a \cdot \nabla u v \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \frac{\lambda h}{|a|^2} (a \cdot \nabla u) (a \cdot \nabla v) \, dx = 0. \quad (2.14)$$

Cette approche atténue la diffusion transverse excessive, mais n'est pas encore tout à fait satisfaisante : elle est par exemple toujours limitée à l'ordre 1. Notons à ce propos que l'ajout du terme de diffusion en O(h)est génant même quand on utilise des éléments finis d'ordre 1. En effet, bien que l'estimation de l'erreur n'en soit pas affectée en norme H^1 , son estimation en norme L^{∞} passe de $O(h^2 |\ln h|)$ à O(h) (voir la remarque 6.2.3 dans A. Quarteroni et A. Valli, [75]).

L'idée de A.N. Brooks et T.J.R. Hughes est d'utiliser ce principe de diffusion suivant les lignes de courant dans une méthode "Petrov-Galerkin", c'est-à-dire, une méthode dans laquelle les fonctions tests n'appartiennent pas au même espace que la solution. Plus précisément, on décompose les fonctions tests w en somme de deux fonctions v et q : v appartient à l'espace V_h où l'on cherche la solution u_h (en particulier v est continue sur le maillage) et q est supposée continue seulement à l'intérieur de chaque élément. On a

$$\int_{\Omega} (-\eta \triangle \, u + a \cdot \nabla u) w \, dx = \int_{\Omega} (-\eta \triangle \, u + a \cdot \nabla u) v \, dx + \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_K (-\eta \triangle \, u + a \cdot \nabla u) q \, dx.$$

En intégrant par partie l'intégrale contenant v, on obtient la formulation "Petrov-Galerkin" du problème d'advection-diffusion :

$$\int_{\Omega} \eta \nabla u \cdot \nabla v + a \cdot \nabla u v \, dx + \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_{K} (-\eta \bigtriangleup u + a \cdot \nabla u) q \, dx = \int_{\Omega} f v \, dx + \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_{K} f q \, dx$$
(2.15)

Reste à déterminer la forme des fonctions q à l'intérieur des éléments. En comparant la formulation Petrov-Galerkin (2.15) à la formulation (2.14) issue de l'idée de diffusion suivant les lignes de courant, A.N. Brooks et T.J.R. Hughes proposent de poser $q = \frac{\lambda h}{|a|^2} a \cdot \nabla v$. En modifiant légèrement la définition de τ , on retrouve ainsi la forme bilinéaire Φ_h du paragraphe 2.1.2 avec $\xi = 0$.

2.2 Le problème de Stokes

La formulation classique du problème de Stokes s'écrit : trouver $(u_h, p_h) \in V_h \times M_h$ tels que pour tout $(v_h, q_h) \in V_h \times M_h$,

$$\Phi(u_h, p_h; v_h, q_h) = \langle F; v_h, q_h \rangle,$$

avec

$$\Phi(u_h, p_h; v_h, q_h) = \int_{\Omega} \eta \nabla u_h \cdot \nabla v_h \, dx - \int_{\Omega} p_h \operatorname{div} v_h \, dx + \int_{\Omega} q_h \operatorname{div} u_h \, dx,$$

 et

$$\langle F; v_h, q_h \rangle = \int_{\Omega} f \cdot v_h \, dx.$$

Dans les méthodes de stabilisation, on remplace Φ par Φ_h définie par

$$\Phi_h(u_h, p_h; v_h, q_h) = \Phi(u_h, p_h; v_h, q_h) + \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_K \tau(-\eta \triangle u_h + \nabla p_h) \cdot (-\xi \eta \triangle v_h + \nabla q_h) \, dx,$$

et F par F_h défini par

$$\langle F_h; v_h, q_h \rangle = \langle F; v_h, q_h \rangle + \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_K \tau f. (-\xi \eta \Delta v_h + \nabla q_h) dx.$$

où $\tau|_K = \lambda h_K^2$, λ étant une constante et ξ vaut -1, 0 ou 1 suivant la méthode.

L'idée sous-jacente consiste donc, comme pour l'équation d'advectiondiffusion, à ajouter un terme "fortement consistant" à la formulation de Galerkin initiale. On peut alors montrer la convergence de la méthode sans que les espaces d'interpolation pour la vitesse et la pression soient soumis à la condition inf-sup. Les techniques de la preuve sont essentiellement les mêmes que pour l'équation d'advection-diffusion. On renvoie à J. Douglas et J. Wang [29], T.J.R. Hughes, L.P. Franca et M. Balestra [54] pour les résultats initiaux et à A. Quarteroni et A. Valli [75] pour une présentation synthétique.

3 Eléments finis stabilisés pour la MHD

L'objet de ce paragraphe est d'étendre les méthodes d'éléments finis stabilisés aux équations de la MHD (1.1)-(1.7), ce qui n'a jamais été fait à ce jour à notre connaissance. Pour simplifier l'exposé, nous supposons que dans tout le domaine la convection domine la diffusion dans les équations de Navier-Stokes (voir la remarque 3.1). Autrement dit, nous supposons que pour toute maille d'intérieur K on a :

$$\frac{|a(x)|h_K}{\eta} > 1, \qquad \forall x \in K.$$
(3.1)

Soient λ_u et λ_B deux constantes strictement positives. On définit les coefficients de stabilisation par :

$$\tau_u|_K = \frac{\lambda_u h_K}{|a(x)|},$$

 et

$$\tau_B|_K = \frac{\lambda_B h_K^2}{\alpha}.$$

Remarquer qu'on a la relation

$$\eta \tau_u|_K \le \lambda_u h_K^2. \tag{3.2}$$

La résolution des équations linéarisées de la MHD (1.1)-(1.7) par la méthode de Galerkin classique consiste à trouver $u_h \in V_h$, $B_h \in W_h$ et $p_h \in M_h$ tels que pour tout $(v_h, C_h, q_h) \in (V_h, W_h, M_h)$

$$\Phi_G(u_h, B_h, p_h; v_h, C_h, q_h) = \langle F_G; v_h, C_h, q_h \rangle,$$

avec

$$\begin{split} \Phi_{G}(u, B, p; v, C, q) &= \int_{\Omega} (\eta \nabla u \cdot \nabla v + a \cdot \nabla u \cdot v - p \operatorname{div} v + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} B \cdot v) \, dx \\ &+ \int_{\Omega} q \operatorname{div} u \, dx \\ &+ \int_{\Omega} (\alpha S \operatorname{rot} B \cdot \operatorname{rot} C + \alpha S \operatorname{div} B \operatorname{div} C - S \, u \times b \cdot \operatorname{rot} C) \, dx, \end{split}$$
et
et
$$< F_{G}; v, C, q > &= \int_{\Omega} f \cdot v \, dx. \end{split}$$

Définissons à présent les termes de stabilisation :

 et

$$\langle F_S; v, C, q \rangle = \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_h} \int_K \tau_u \quad f \cdot (a \cdot \nabla v + \xi \eta \Delta v + \nabla q + S b \times \operatorname{rot} C) dx$$

où, comme dans le cas de l'équation d'advection-diffusion, ξ est un paramètre valant -1, 0 ou 1 suivant la méthode choisie. Le problème stabilisé que l'on se propose d'étudier maintenant s'écrit : trouver $u_h \in V_h$, $B_h \in W_h$ et $p_h \in M_h$ tels que pour tout $(v_h, C_h, q_h) \in (V_h, W_h, M_h)$

$$\Phi(u_h, B_h, p_h; v_h, C_h, q_h) = \langle F; v_h, C_h, q_h \rangle$$
(3.3)

avec $\Phi = \Phi_G + \Phi_S$ et $F = F_G + F_S$.

Théorème 8

On rappelle que $V_h = (X_h^k \cap H_0^1(\Omega))^3$, $M_h = X_h^m \cap L_0^2(\Omega)$ et $W_h = (X_h^l)^3 \cap \mathbb{H}_n^1(\Omega)$. On note (u, B, p) la solution exacte des équations linéarisées de la MHD (1.1)-(1.7), $(\tilde{u}_h, \tilde{B}_h, \tilde{p}_h)$ l'interpolé de (u, B, p) dans $V_h \times W_h \times M_h$ et (u_h, B_h, p_h) la solution obtenue par la méthode des éléments finis stabilisés (3.3). Alors, sous l'hypothèse (3.1), l'erreur d'approximation $(e_u, e_B, e_p) = (\tilde{u}_h - u_h, \tilde{B}_h - B_h, \tilde{p}_h - p_h)$ est majorée ainsi :

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} (\eta |\nabla e_{u}|^{2} + S\alpha |\operatorname{rot} e_{B}|^{2} + S\alpha |\operatorname{div} e_{B}|^{2}) dx + \int_{\Omega} \tau_{B} S |\operatorname{rot} (e_{u} \times b)|^{2} dx \\
+ \int_{\Omega} \tau_{u} |a. \nabla e_{u} + \nabla e_{p} + S b \times \operatorname{rot} e_{B}|^{2} dx \leq \\
C_{\lambda_{u},\lambda_{B}} \left(\left(\lambda_{u} (||a||_{\infty} h + \eta) + \frac{S^{2}h^{2}}{\alpha} (||b||_{\infty}^{2} + h^{2}||\nabla b||_{\infty}^{2}) \right) h^{2k} |u|_{k+1}^{2} \\
+ \left(\frac{\lambda_{u}h}{||a||_{\infty}} + \frac{h^{2}}{\eta} \right) h^{2m} |p|_{m+1}^{2} \\
+ \left(\lambda_{u} \frac{S^{2} ||b||_{\infty}^{2}}{||a||_{\infty}} h + \lambda_{B} \alpha \right) h^{2l} |B|_{l+1}^{2} \right).$$
(3.4)

 \diamond

Remarquer que si on ne stabilisait pas l'équation de Navier-Stokes, on perdrait la convergence sur la pression. En revanche, la stabilisation de l'équation de Maxwell n'est pas nécessaire pour prouver la convergence sur B (voir la Remarque 3.4). La suite de cette section est dédiée à la preuve de ce théorème. Nous commençons par prouver la stabilité dans les différents cas ($\xi = -1, 0, 1$) puis la convergence dans le cas $\xi = 1$.

Remarque 3.1 Nous avons supposé pour simplifier l'exposé que le régime était partout dominé par la convection. On utilisera dans la pratique :

$$au_{u}|_{K} = rac{\lambda_{u}h_{K}}{|a(x)|} \ quand \ rac{|a(x)|h_{K}}{\eta} > 1,$$

et

$$au_{u}|_{K} = rac{\lambda_{u}h_{K}^{2}}{\eta} \ quand \ rac{|a(x)|h_{K}}{\eta} \leq 1.$$

C'est cette définition de τ_u que l'on a implémentée pour les tests numériques.

Remarque 3.2 Il est proposé dans [36], d'ajouter dans la définition de Φ le terme suivant :

$$\int_{\Omega} \delta \, div \, u \, div \, v \, dx.$$

où δ est un paramètre variable selon le régime. L'introduction de ce terme pour les équations de la MHD peut se faire en reprenant mutatis mutandis les arguments de [36]. Nous n'avons pas fait figurer ce terme dans le théorème cidessus afin de ne pas alourdir la présentation, mais nous l'avons implémenté dans nos tests numériques.

Remarque 3.3 On a mentionné en introduction que les champs a et b pouvaient être vus comme les champs u^n et B^n à partir desquels on calcule $u = u^{n+1}$ et $B = B^{n+1}$ dans un algorithme de point fixe pour résoudre les équations non linéaires de la MHD. Dans cette optique, voyons ce qui doit être changé si on suppose $a \in V_h$ et $b \in W_h$. Le champ a n'est alors plus nécessairement à divergence nulle, mais dans la preuve qui suit, cette hypothèse sert seulement à assurer l'antisymétrie de la forme trilinéaire correspondant au terme d'advection. Il suffit donc de remplacer classiquement (R. Temam [94])

par

$$\int_{\Omega} a \cdot \nabla v \cdot w \, dx + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} w \cdot v \, div \, a \, dx.$$

 $\int_{\Omega} a \cdot \nabla v \cdot w \, dx$

Voyons à présent ce qu'implique $b \in W_h$. Compte tenu des hypothèses faites sur le maillage, on dispose de l'inégalité inverse (voir par exemple P.G. Ciarlet [21], Théorème 17.2) :

$$||\nabla b||_{\infty} \le \frac{C}{h} ||b||_{\infty}$$

On peut donc remplacer dans l'estimation (3.4) le terme $(||b||_{\infty}^2 + h^2 ||\nabla b||_{\infty}^2)$ par $C||b||_{\infty}^2$.

3.1 Stabilité

Nous allons montrer dans ce paragraphe la stabilité du problème (3.3). Commençons par le terme correspondant à la méthode de Galerkin classique, c'est-à-dire $\Phi_G(u, B, p; u, B, p)$. Le terme de convection s'annule grâce à l'hypothèse div a = 0, les termes correspondant à ∇p et div u se compensent, ainsi que la force de Lorentz et le terme de "convection" dans l'équation de Maxwell d'après la relation :

$$\int_{\Omega} Sb \times \operatorname{rot} B \cdot u \, dx = \int_{\Omega} Su \times b \cdot \operatorname{rot} B \, dx.$$

C'est cette relation qui rend inutile l'hypothèse divb = 0, et c'est afin d'utiliser cette propriété que l'on a linéarisé ainsi le système de la MHD. Finalement, on obtient :

$$\Phi_G(u, B, p; u, B, p) = \int_{\Omega} \left(\eta |\nabla u|^2 + \alpha S |\operatorname{rot} B|^2 + \alpha S |\operatorname{div} B|^2 \right) \, dx. \quad (3.5)$$

Passons à présent aux termes liés à la stabilisation.

• Cas $\xi = 1$.

En utilisant (3.2) et l'inégalité inverse (1.9), on a :

$$\begin{split} \Phi_{S}(u, B, p; u, B, p) &= \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} \int_{K} (\tau_{u} | a. \nabla u + \nabla p + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} B |^{2} - \tau_{u} \eta^{2} |\Delta u|^{2}) \, dx \\ &+ \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} \int_{K} (\tau_{B} S |\operatorname{rot} (u \times b)|^{2} - \tau_{B} S \alpha^{2} |\Delta B|^{2}) \, dx \\ &\geq \int_{\Omega} \tau_{u} | a. \nabla u + \nabla p + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} B |^{2} \, dx - d_{0} \lambda_{u} \int_{\Omega} \eta |\nabla u|^{2} \, dx \\ &+ \int_{\Omega} \tau_{B} S |\operatorname{rot} (u \times b)|^{2} \, dx - d_{0} \lambda_{B} \int_{\Omega} S \alpha |\nabla B|^{2} \, dx. \end{split}$$

Avec (1.10) et (3.5), on en déduit l'inégalité

$$\begin{split} \Phi(u, B, p; u, B, p) &\geq (1 - d_0 \lambda_u) \int_{\Omega} \eta |\nabla u|^2 \, dx + (1 - d_0 \lambda_B) \int_{\Omega} S\alpha |\operatorname{rot} B|^2 \, dx \\ &+ (1 - d_0 \lambda_B) \int_{\Omega} S\alpha |\operatorname{div} B|^2 \, dx + \int_{\Omega} \tau_B S |\operatorname{rot} (u \times b)|^2 \, dx \\ &+ \int_{\Omega} \tau_u |a. \nabla u + \nabla p + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} B|^2 \, dx. \end{split}$$

La stabilité de l'approximation est donc acquise dès que λ_u et λ_B sont choisis tels que :

$$1 - d_0 \lambda_B > 0$$
 et $1 - d_0 \lambda_u > 0.$ (3.6)

• Cas $\xi = -1$.

Soit γ est une constante arbitraire supérieure à 1. En utilisant l'inégalité

$$|A - B|^2 \ge |A|^2 - 2|A||B| + |B|^2 \ge (1 - 1/\gamma)|B|^2 - (\gamma - 1)|A|^2,$$

on a

$$\begin{split} \Phi_{S}(u,B,p;u,B,p) &= \sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{u}|a.\nabla u - \eta \bigtriangleup u + \nabla p + Sb\times \operatorname{rot}B|^{2}dx \\ &+ \sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{B}S| - \operatorname{rot}\left(u\times b\right) - \alpha \bigtriangleup B|^{2}dx \\ \geq &-(\gamma-1)\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\eta^{2}\tau_{u}|\bigtriangleup u|^{2} + \alpha^{2}S\tau_{B}|\bigtriangleup B|^{2}dx \\ &+(1-1/\gamma)\int_{\Omega}\tau_{u}|a\cdot\nabla u + \nabla p + Sb\times \operatorname{rot}B|^{2}dx + \\ &+(1-1/\gamma)\int_{\Omega}\tau_{B}S|\operatorname{rot}\left(u\times B\right)|^{2}dx. \end{split}$$

On en déduit, avec (3.2) et (1.9), que

$$\begin{split} \Phi_{S}(u,B,p;u,B,p) &\geq -(\gamma-1)\lambda_{u}d_{0}\int_{\Omega}\eta|\nabla u|^{2}\,dx - (\gamma-1)\lambda_{B}d_{0}\int_{\Omega}\alpha S|\nabla B|^{2}\,dx \\ &+(1-1/\gamma)\int_{\Omega}\tau_{u}|a\cdot\nabla u+\nabla p+S\,b\times\operatorname{rot}B|^{2}\,dx + \\ &(1-1/\gamma)\int_{\Omega}\tau_{B}S|\operatorname{rot}\left(u\times B\right)|^{2}\,dx. \end{split}$$

Ainsi, en choisissant $\gamma > 1$ tel que $1 > (\gamma - 1)\lambda_u d_0$ et $1 > (\gamma - 1)\lambda_B d_0$, on en déduit la stabilité comme dans le cas précédent. Remarquer qu'ici aucune hypothèse n'est faite sur λ_u et λ_B .

• Cas $\xi = 0$.

On procède comme dans le cas où $\xi=1$:

$$\begin{split} \Phi_{S}(u, B, p; u, B, p) &= \\ \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} \int_{K} (\tau_{u} | a. \nabla u + \nabla p + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} B |^{2} - \tau_{u} \eta \bigtriangleup u \cdot (a \cdot \nabla u + \nabla p + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} B)) \, dx \\ &+ \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} \int_{K} (\tau_{B} S |\operatorname{rot} (u \times b)|^{2} + \tau_{B} S \alpha \bigtriangleup B \cdot \operatorname{rot} (u \times b)) \, dx \ge \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \tau_{u} | a. \nabla u + \nabla p + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} B |^{2} \, dx - \frac{1}{2} \lambda_{u} d_{0} \int_{\Omega} \eta |\nabla u|^{2} \, dx \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \tau_{B} S |\operatorname{rot} (u \times b)|^{2} - \frac{1}{2} \lambda_{B} d_{0} \int_{\Omega} \alpha S |\nabla B|^{2} \, dx. \end{split}$$

d'où on déduit la stabilité de l'approximation dès lors que

$$1 - \frac{1}{2}d_0\lambda_B > 0$$
 et $1 - \frac{1}{2}d_0\lambda_u > 0.$

3.2 Convergence

On va prouver la convergence dans le cas où $\xi = 1$. Les autres cas se traitent de manière analogue. On fixe λ_u et λ_B de sorte que $1 - d_0 \lambda_u \ge 1/2$ et $1 - d_0 \lambda_B \ge 1/2$, ce qui d'après (3.6) assure la stabilité de l'approximation.

On notera u, B, p la solution du problème continu (1.1)- $(1.7), \tilde{u}$ l'interpolé de u dans l'espace V_h, \tilde{B} l'interpolé de B dans l'espace W_h, \tilde{p} l'interpolé de p dans l'espace M_h . On désignera par u_h, B_h et p_h la solution du problème discret stabilisé. On notera l'erreur d'interpolation pour le champ de vitesse $\pi_u = u - \tilde{u}_h$, l'erreur d'approximation $e_u = \tilde{u}_h - u_h$, l'erreur globale $\epsilon_u = u - u_h$ et on définit de manière analogue π_B, e_B, ϵ_B pour le champ magnétique et π_p, e_p, ϵ_p pour le champ de pression. On a les relations $\epsilon_u = \pi_u + e_u$, $\epsilon_B = \pi_B + e_B, \epsilon_p = \pi_p + e_p$. La consistance "forte" de la formulation stabilisée implique :

$$\Phi(e_u, e_B, e_p; e_u, e_B, e_p) = \Phi(\epsilon_u - \pi_u, \epsilon_B - \pi_B, \epsilon_p - \pi_p; e_u, e_B, e_p)$$

= $-\Phi(\pi_u, \pi_B, \pi_p; e_u, e_B, e_p).$

L'inégalité de stabilité prouvée au paragraphe précédent permet donc d'écrire :

$$\int_{\Omega} (\eta |\nabla e_u|^2 + S\alpha |\operatorname{rot} e_B|^2 + S\alpha |\operatorname{div} e_B|^2) \, dx + 2 \int_{\Omega} \tau_B S |\operatorname{rot} (e_u \times b)|^2 \, dx$$
$$+ 2 \int_{\Omega} \tau_u |a. \nabla e_u + \nabla e_p + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} e_B|^2 \, dx \le 2 |\Phi(\pi_u, \pi_B, \pi_p; e_u, e_B, e_p)|.$$
(3.7)

Reste à présent à majorer le membre de droite de cette inégalité en faisant en sorte que tous les termes en e_u , e_B et e_p soient "absorbés" par le membre de gauche. Rappelons qu'on a décomposé Φ en une partie Φ_G correspondant à la méthode de Galerkin classique et une partie Φ_S regroupant les termes de stabilisation. On a pour la composante de Galerkin :

$$2\Phi_G(\pi_u, \pi_B, \pi_p; e_u, e_B, e_p) = 2\int_{\Omega} e_p \operatorname{div} \pi_u \, dx + 2\int_{\Omega} (\eta \nabla \pi_u \cdot \nabla e_u + a \cdot \nabla \pi_u \cdot e_u - \pi_p \operatorname{div} e_u + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} \pi_B \cdot e_u) \, dx + 2\int_{\Omega} (\alpha S \operatorname{rot} \pi_B \cdot \operatorname{rot} e_B + \alpha S \operatorname{div} \pi_B \operatorname{div} e_B - S \, \pi_u \times b \cdot \operatorname{rot} e_B) \, dx.$$

Les termes de diffusion se majorent sans difficulté :

$$2\eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \pi_{u}| |\nabla e_{u}| \, dx \leq \gamma_{1} \eta \int_{\Omega} |\nabla \pi_{u}|^{2} \, dx + \frac{\eta}{\gamma_{1}} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla e_{u}|^{2} \, dx,$$

$$2\alpha S \int_{\Omega} (|\operatorname{rot} \pi_{B}| |\operatorname{rot} e_{B}| + |\operatorname{div} \pi_{B}| |\operatorname{div} e_{B}|) \, dx \leq \gamma_{2} \alpha S \int_{\Omega} (|\operatorname{rot} \pi_{B}|^{2} + |\operatorname{div} \pi_{B}|^{2}) \, dx + \frac{\alpha S}{\gamma_{2}} \int_{\Omega} (|\operatorname{rot} e_{B}|^{2} + |\operatorname{div} e_{B}|^{2}) \, dx.$$

Dans la majoration des termes correspondant à la convection et à la contrainte d'incompressibilité, on fait apparaître les termes de stabilisation :

$$2\left|\int_{\Omega} a \cdot \nabla \pi_u \cdot e_u + e_p \operatorname{div} \pi_u - S \pi_u \times b \cdot \operatorname{rot} e_B \, dx\right| \leq \frac{1}{\gamma_3} \int_{\Omega} \tau_u |a. \nabla e_u + \nabla e_p + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} e_B|^2 \, dx + \gamma_3 \int_K \frac{1}{\tau_u} |\pi_u|^2 \, dx.$$

Remarquer qu'il y a ici un "échange" entre les équations de Navier-Stokes et de Maxwell : le terme $\pi_u \times b \cdot \operatorname{rot} e_B$ provient en effet des équations de Maxwell et est absorbé par le terme de stabilisation des équations de Navier-Stokes. En contrepartie, $b \times \operatorname{rot} \pi_B \cdot e_u$ qui provient de la force de Lorentz dans l'équation de Navier-Stokes est absorbé par le terme de stabilisation de l'équation de Maxwell (voir à ce propos la Remarque 3.4). En effet, en utilisant la formule (1.12) :

$$2\left|\int_{\Omega} S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} \pi_B \cdot e_u \, dx\right| \leq \frac{S}{\gamma_4} \int_{\Omega} \tau_B |\operatorname{rot} (e_u \times b)|^2 \, dx + S\gamma_4 \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{\tau_B} |\pi_B|^2 \, dx$$

En utilisant (1.11), on majore enfin le terme de pression (ce contrôle se ferait légèrement différemment si on introduisait le terme de la Remarque 3.2) :

$$2\int_{\Omega} |\pi_p| |\operatorname{div} e_u| \, dx \leq \frac{3\eta}{\gamma_5} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla e_u|^2 \, dx + \frac{\gamma_5}{\eta} \int_{\Omega} |\pi_p|^2 \, dx$$

Estimons à présent les termes de stabilisation :

$$\Phi_{S}(\pi_{u}, \pi_{B}, \pi_{p}; e_{u}, e_{B}, e_{p}) = \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} \int_{K} \tau_{u} \quad (a \cdot \nabla \pi_{u} - \eta \Delta \pi_{u} + \nabla \pi_{p} + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} \pi_{B}) \cdot (a \cdot \nabla e_{u} + \eta \Delta e_{u} + \nabla e_{p} + S \, b \times \operatorname{rot} e_{B}) \, dx + \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} \int_{K} \tau_{B} \quad (-\alpha S \Delta \pi_{B} - \operatorname{Srot} (\pi_{u} \times b)) \cdot (\alpha \Delta e_{B} - \operatorname{rot} (e_{u} \times b)) \, dx.$$

Les termes de stabilisation de l'équation de Navier-Stokes se majorent comme suit :

$$2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{u}|a\cdot\nabla\pi_{u}||a\cdot\nabla e_{u}+\nabla e_{p}+Sb\times\operatorname{rot} e_{B}|\,dx\leq\gamma_{3}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{u}|a\cdot\nabla\pi_{u}|^{2}\,dx+\frac{1}{\gamma_{3}}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{u}|a\cdot\nabla e_{u}+\nabla e_{p}+Sb\times\operatorname{rot} e_{B}|^{2}\,dx,$$

$$2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{u}|a\cdot\nabla\pi_{u}||\eta\triangle e_{u}|\,dx\leq\gamma_{6}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{u}|a\cdot\nabla\pi_{u}|^{2}\,dx+\frac{d_{0}\lambda_{u}}{\gamma_{6}}\int_{\Omega}\eta|\nabla e_{u}|^{2}\,dx,$$

$$2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{u}|\eta\triangle\pi_{u}||a\cdot\nabla e_{u}+\nabla e_{p}+Sb\times\operatorname{rot} e_{B}|\,dx\leq\gamma_{3}\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{u}\eta^{2}|\Delta\pi_{u}|^{2}\,dx+\frac{1}{\gamma_{3}}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{u}|a\cdot\nabla e_{u}+\nabla e_{p}+Sb\times\operatorname{rot} e_{B}|^{2}\,dx,$$

$$\begin{split} & 2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{u}|\eta\bigtriangleup\pi_{u}||\eta\bigtriangleup\pi_{u}||\eta\bigtriangleup e_{u}|\,dx \quad \leq \quad \frac{d_{0}\lambda_{u}}{\gamma_{6}}\int_{\Omega}\eta|\nabla e_{u}|^{2}\,dx + \gamma_{6}\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{u}\eta^{2}|\bigtriangleup\pi_{u}|^{2}\,dx, \\ & 2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{u}|\nabla\pi_{p}||a\cdot\nabla e_{u}+\nabla e_{p}+S\,b\times\operatorname{rot}e_{B}|\,dx\leq\gamma_{3}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{u}|\nabla\pi_{p}|^{2}\,dx + \\ & \quad \frac{1}{\gamma_{3}}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{u}|a\cdot\nabla e_{u}+\nabla e_{p}+S\,b\times\operatorname{rot}e_{B}|^{2}\,dx, \\ & 2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{u}|\nabla\pi_{p}||\eta\bigtriangleup e_{u}|\,dx \quad \leq \quad \frac{d_{0}\lambda_{u}}{\gamma_{6}}\int_{\Omega}\eta|\nabla e_{u}|^{2}\,dx + \gamma_{6}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{u}|\nabla\pi_{p}|^{2}\,dx, \\ & 2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{u}|S\,b\times\operatorname{rot}\pi_{B}||a\cdot\nabla e_{u}+\nabla e_{p}+S\,b\times\operatorname{rot}e_{B}|\,dx\leq \\ & \gamma_{3}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{u}S^{2}\,|b\times\operatorname{rot}\pi_{B}|^{2}\,dx + \frac{1}{\gamma_{3}}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{u}|a\cdot\nabla e_{u}+\nabla e_{p}+S\,b\times\operatorname{rot}e_{B}|^{2}\,dx, \\ & 2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{u}|S\,b\times\operatorname{rot}\pi_{B}||\eta\bigtriangleup e_{u}|\,dx\leq \\ & \frac{d_{0}\lambda_{u}}{\gamma_{6}}\int_{\Omega}\eta|\nabla e_{u}|^{2}\,dx + \gamma_{6}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{u}S^{2}|b\times\operatorname{rot}\pi_{B}|^{2}\,dx. \end{split}$$

Passons enfin aux termes de stabilisation de l'équation de Maxwell :

$$\begin{split} & 2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{B}|\alpha S\bigtriangleup\pi_{B}||\alpha\bigtriangleup e_{B}|\,dx\leq \frac{d_{0}\lambda_{B}}{\gamma_{7}}\int_{\Omega}\alpha|\operatorname{rot} e_{B}|^{2}+\alpha|\operatorname{div} e_{B}|^{2}\,dx + \\ & \sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\gamma_{7}\int_{K}\tau_{B}\alpha^{2}S^{2}|\bigtriangleup\pi_{B}|^{2}\,dx, \\ & 2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{B}|\alpha S\bigtriangleup\pi_{B}||\operatorname{rot}(e_{u}\times b)|\,dx\leq \frac{1}{\gamma_{4}}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{B}|\operatorname{rot}(e_{u}\times b)|^{2}\,dx + \\ & \sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\gamma_{4}\int_{K}\tau_{B}\alpha^{2}S^{2}|\bigtriangleup\pi_{B}|^{2}\,dx, \\ & 2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{B}|S\operatorname{rot}(\pi_{u}\times b)||\alpha\bigtriangleup e_{B}|\,dx\leq \gamma_{7}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{B}S^{2}|\operatorname{rot}(\pi_{u}\times b)|^{2}\,dx + \\ & \frac{d_{0}\lambda_{B}}{\gamma_{7}}\int_{\Omega}\alpha|\operatorname{rot} e_{B}|^{2}+\alpha|\operatorname{div} e_{B}|^{2}\,dx, \\ & 2\sum_{K\in\mathcal{T}_{h}}\int_{K}\tau_{B}|S\operatorname{rot}(\pi_{u}\times b)||\operatorname{rot}(e_{u}\times b)|\,dx\leq \gamma_{4}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{B}S^{2}|\operatorname{rot}(\pi_{u}\times b)|^{2}\,dx + \\ & \frac{1}{\gamma_{4}}\int_{\Omega}\tau_{B}|\operatorname{rot}(e_{u}\times b)|^{2}\,dx + \\ & \frac{1}{\gamma_{4}}\int_{\Omega}\pi_{B}|\operatorname{rot}(e_{u}\times b)|^{2}\,dx. \end{split}$$

En choisissant convenablement les γ_i et en injectant les inégalités établies ci-dessus dans (3.7), on obtient :

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} (\eta |\nabla e_{u}|^{2} + S\alpha |\operatorname{rot} e_{B}|^{2} + S\alpha |\operatorname{div} e_{B}|^{2}) dx + \int_{\Omega} \tau_{B} S |\operatorname{rot} (e_{u} \times b)|^{2} dx \\
+ \int_{\Omega} \tau_{u} |a \cdot \nabla e_{u} + \nabla e_{p} + Sb \times \operatorname{rot} e_{B}|^{2} dx \leq \\
c_{1} \int_{\Omega} \tau_{u} |a \cdot \nabla \pi_{u}|^{2} dx + c_{2} \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} \int_{K} \tau_{u} \eta^{2} |\Delta \pi_{u}|^{2} dx + \\
c_{3} \int_{\Omega} \tau_{u} |\nabla \pi_{p}|^{2} dx + \frac{c_{4}}{\eta} \int_{\Omega} |\pi_{p}|^{2} dx + c_{5} \int_{\Omega} \tau_{u} S^{2} |b \times \operatorname{rot} \pi_{B}|^{2} + \\
c_{6} \sum_{K \in \mathcal{T}_{h}} \int_{K} \tau_{B} \alpha^{2} |\Delta \pi_{B}|^{2} dx + c_{7} \int_{K} S^{2} \tau_{B} |\operatorname{rot} (\pi_{u} \times b)|^{2} dx,$$
(3.8)

où les c_i sont des constantes indépendantes de h_K , η , α , a et b. Afin d'achever la preuve de convergence, nous établissons les estimations d'interpolation suivantes. En utilisant $\tau_u \eta^2 \leq \lambda_u \eta h_K^2$, on a :

$$\begin{split} c_{1} \int_{K} \tau_{u} |a \cdot \nabla \pi_{u}|^{2} \, dx + c_{2} \int_{K} \tau_{u} \eta^{2} |\Delta \pi_{u}|^{2} \, dx &\leq C(||a||_{\infty} h_{K} + \eta) \lambda_{u} h_{K}^{2k} |u|_{k+1,K}^{2}, \\ c_{3} \int_{K} \tau_{u} |\nabla \pi_{p}|^{2} \, dx + \frac{c_{4}}{\eta} \int_{K} |\pi_{p}|^{2} \, dx &\leq C(\frac{\lambda_{u}}{||a||_{\infty}} + \frac{h_{K}}{\eta}) h_{K}^{2m+1} |p|_{m+1,K}^{2}, \\ c_{5} \int_{K} \tau_{u} S^{2} |b \times \operatorname{rot} \pi_{B}|^{2} + c_{6} \int_{K} \tau_{B} \alpha^{2} |\Delta \pi_{B}|^{2} \, dx &\leq C \left(\lambda_{u} \frac{S^{2} ||b||_{\infty}^{2}}{||a||_{\infty}} h_{K} + \lambda_{B} \alpha\right) h_{K}^{2l} |B|_{l+1,K}^{2}, \\ c_{7} \int_{K} S^{2} \tau_{B} |\operatorname{rot} (\pi_{u} \times b)|^{2} \, dx &= c_{7} \int_{K} S^{2} \tau_{B} |\pi_{u}|^{2} (|\operatorname{div} b|^{2} + |\nabla b|^{2}) \, dx \\ &\quad + c_{7} \int_{K} S^{2} \tau_{B} |b|^{2} (|\operatorname{div} \pi_{u}|^{2} + |\nabla \pi_{u}|^{2}) \, dx \\ &\leq C(||b||_{\infty}^{2} + h_{K}^{2} ||\nabla b||_{\infty}^{2}) \frac{S^{2} h_{K}^{2}}{\alpha} h_{K}^{2k} |u|_{k+1,K}^{2}. \end{split}$$

En reportant ces inégalités dans (3.8), on obtient (3.4) ce qui achève la preuve du Théorème 8.

Remarque 3.4 On a noté dans cette preuve, que le terme $\pi_u \times b \cdot rote_B$ provenant de l'équation de Maxwell était "absorbé" par le terme de stabilisation de Navier-Stokes, et inversement pour $b \times rot\pi_B \cdot e_u$. C'est ce point qui nous a conduit à stabiliser également l'équation de Maxwell bien que le Reynolds magnétique ne soit pas élevé dans notre problème. Examinons la façon dont on contrôlerait le terme $b \times rot\pi_B \cdot e_u$ si on ne stabilisait pas l'équation de Maxwell, c'est-à-dire si on avait $\tau_B = 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\Omega} b \times \operatorname{rot} \pi_{B} \cdot e_{u} \, dx \right| &= \left| \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{rot} (e_{u} \times b) \cdot \pi_{B} \, dx \right| \\ &\leq 2C(||b||_{\infty} + ||\nabla b||_{\infty})||\nabla e_{u}||_{L^{2}}||\pi_{B}||_{L^{2}} \\ &\leq \frac{\eta}{\gamma_{1}} \int_{\Omega} |\nabla e_{u}|^{2} \, dx + C \frac{\gamma_{1}||b||_{W^{1,\infty}}^{2}}{\eta} \int_{\Omega} |\pi_{B}|^{2} \, dx. \end{aligned}$$

Ainsi, dans la majoration de l'erreur sur B, apparaîtrait la quantité

$$\frac{h^2||b||^2_{W^{1,\infty}}}{n}h^{2l}|B|^2_{l+1}$$

Cette majoration donne la convergence de l'approximation, mais est bien moins bonne que celle du Théorème 8 quand $||a||_{\infty}h/\eta$ est grand.

4 Résultats numériques

Dans tous les tests présentés ici, nous nous limitons à des éléments Q1 non déformés. Les trois variantes de stabilisation $\xi = -1, 0, 1$ coïncident donc.

4.1 Ecoulement MHD sur une marche

Pour commencer, nous proposons les résultats de la simulation numérique d'un écoulement 2D sur une marche en présence d'un champ magnétique transverse (voir Chapitre 7). Ce calcul a été effectué avec Re = 100, Rm = 0.125, S = 1 en utilisant l'algorithme de point fixe présenté au Chapitre 7 et en ne stabilisant que les équations de Navier-Stokes. Autrement dit, nous prenons $\tau_B = 0$ dans la formulation stabilisée du paragraphe précédent, ce qui, compte tenu de la remarque 3.4 n'empèche pas de prouver la convergence mais la rend, en théorie, moins bonne. Le fait de stabiliser les équations de Navier-Stokes permet de travailler avec des éléments Q1/Q1. Le Figure 8.2 montre que le profil de pression obtenu avec les Q1/Q1 stabilisés est comparable à celui obtenu avec les Q2/P1. La Figure 8.1 montre le champ de vitesse et la différence entre le champ magnétique et le champ $B^d = (0, 1)$ qui règnerait en l'absence de mouvement dans le fluide.

4.2 Effet d'un circuit électrique sur un fluide conducteur

Nous reprenons à présent la première expérience du Chapitre 7, Section 4.5 : un fluide confiné dans un parallélépipède est traversé par un courant électrique, et est mis en présence de deux conducteurs filaires situés à l'extérieur (voir Figure 7.10, p. 197).

Nous avons effectué ce test au Chapitre 7 avec des valeurs réalistes pour les paramètres adimensionnels magnétiques (Rm = S = 1), mais avec un nombre de Reynolds (Re = 100) bien en deçà de sa valeur physique. Avec Re = 300, des oscillations commencent à apparaître avec des éléments Q1/P0 alors que le calcul stabilisé donne de bons résultats (voir Figures 8.3 et 8.4). Nous ne sommes pas parvenus à augmenter davantage le nombre de Reynolds avec les éléments Q1/P0 alors que l'on a atteint Re = 1000 avec les méthodes de stabilisation.

Vitesse. Re=10	00. Rm=0.125. S=1. Q1/Q1 stab	VELOCITY VECTOR PLOT
		SCALE FACTOR
		0.1000E+03
		REFER. VECTOR
		MAX.VEC.PLOT'D 0.1000E+01
		AT NODE 6
		COLOR CODE: VELOCITY
······································		- 0 .889E+00 -0 .78E+00 -0 .78E+00 -0 .667E+00 -0 .565E+00 -0 .556E+00 -0 .334E+00 -0 .223E+00 -0 .111E+00
		TIME 0 100F+00
		SCREEN LIMITS
		XMIN - 251E-02
		YMIN - 321E+00 YMAX 0.571E+00
Y ↑		FIDAP 7.52
		22 Apr 98



FIG. 8.1: Ecoulement MHD 2D sur une marche, Re=100, Rm=0.125, S=1, u (en haut) et $B-B_0$ (en bas), éléments Q1/Q1 stabilisés.





FIG. 8.2: Ecoulement MHD 2D sur une marche, Re=100, Rm=0.125, S=1, champ de pression, éléments Q2/P1 (en haut) et éléments Q1/Q1 stabilisés (en bas).

Re	Q1/P0	Q1/Q1 Stab NS	Q1/Q1 Stab NS+Max
100	309	146	141
200	1274	239	213
500	diverge	420	373
1000	diverge	diverge	560

TAB. 8.1: Nombre d'itérations pour résoudre les systèmes linéaires.

Nous avons comparé pour diverses valeurs du nombre de Reynolds les trois types d'approximation suivants : Q1/P0 (pas de stabilisation), Q1/Q1 où seule l'équation de Navier-Stokes est stabilisée ("Q1/Q1 Stab NS") et Q1/Q1 où les deux équations sont stabilisées ("Q1/Q1 Stab NS+Max"). Pour la résolution non linéaire, on amorce le calcul avec 4 itérations de point fixe, avant de passer à l'algorithme de Newton. La tolérance sur le résidu relatif non linéaire est de 10^{-3} . Les systèmes linéaires sont résolus avec l'algorithme CGS préconditionné par une factorisation LU incomplète, la tolérance sur le résidu relatif étant fixée à 10^{-9} . Nous indiquons dans le Tableau 8.1, le nombre *total* d'itérations dans CGS nécessaire pour résoudre les systèmes linéaires. Cette valeur est un bon indicateur du temps de calcul, puisque la grande majorité du temps CPU est utilisée pour la résolution des systèmes linéaires.

Il est intéressant de noter que, conformément à ce que laissait penser la preuve de convergence du paragraphe précédent, le fait de stabiliser l'équation de Maxwell se révèle utile, surtout quand le nombre de Reynolds est élevé.

5 Conclusion

Après un rappel sur les méthodes d'éléments finis stabilisés pour les équations d'advection diffusion et de Stokes, nous avons proposé et analysé une mise en oeuvre de ces techniques pour le problème de la MHD. Les résultats numériques présentés confirment l'efficacité de la méthode dans une expérience significative d'un point de vue industriel. Ils confirment également l'utilité pratique de stabiliser l'équation de Maxwell dès lors que la diffusion *hydrodynamique* est faible (même quand la diffusion magnétique est élevée). Ce point est également mis en évidence d'un point de vue théorique dans la preuve du théorème de convergence.



FIG. 8.3: Champ de vitesse dans un fluide en présence de conducteurs extérieurs, Re = 300, avec des éléments Q1/P0 (en haut, remarquer les oscillations) et Q1/Q1 stabilisés (en bas).





FIG. 8.4: Expérience de la Figure 8.3 : première composante du champ de vitesse le long d'une droite, avec des éléments Q1/P0 (en haut) et Q1/Q1 stabilisés (en bas).

Appendice

Semi-implicit Roe-type fluxes for low-Mach number flows

Ce travail, réalisé en collaboration avec Nathalie Glinsky-Olivier et Bernard Larrouturou, n'est pas lié à l'électrolyse de l'aluminium. Il a paru en Mars 1997 sous la forme d'un rapport de recherche INRIA (numéro 3132).

1 Introduction and motivation

We are interested in the numerical simulation of compressible flows at low Mach numbers, such as the ones arising for instance in flame propagation phenomena.

It is well-known that the disparity between the material velocity u and the sound speed c in such flows makes the fully explicit schemes very inefficient. To illustrate this point, assume that the Mach number is $\mathcal{M} = \frac{|u|}{c} = 10^{-2}$. Then, an explicit method may operate with the following time step, obtained from the classical CFL condition:

$$\Delta t \approx \Delta t_f = \frac{\Delta x}{|u| + c} \approx \frac{\Delta x}{c} . \qquad (1.1)$$

We will call this time step Δt_f the "acoustic time step"; the subscript "f" in Δt_f stands for "fast", since the acoustic waves travel much faster than the flow particles. Then, a wave propagating with the velocity u (and this is approximately the case of a flame) will need 100 time steps (i.e., \mathcal{M}^{-1}) before it crosses a single spatial cell ! Such an extreme inefficiency is inacceptable in practice for many problems. Ideally, one would like to operate with a time step of the order of the "convective time step", i.e. with:

$$\Delta t \approx \Delta t_s = \frac{\Delta x}{|u|} , \qquad (1.2)$$

using a fully or partially implicit scheme (the subscript "s" in Δt_s stands for "slow").

Several methods have been proposed these last years in this direction. Most of them rely on the asymptotic analysis of low Mach number flows, which enlights the way in which a compressible flow tends to an incompressible flow as \mathcal{M} approaches 0. These methods therefore have similarities with the methods for incompressible fluid mechanics; in particular they use an implicit solution of an elliptic equation for the pressure (see [60], [72], [101]). Other methods deal with the related difficulties which are met for the simulation of steady low Mach number flows ; since these methods use time-inconsistent preconditioning (see e.g. [17]), they are irrelevant for timedependent low Mach number flows, which we consider in the present study.

We follow here a different approach initially introduced by G. Fernandez [32]. The goal of this work is to develop a method which remains as close as possible to the methods employed for flows with moderate or even large Mach numbers. More precisely, it introduces a decomposition between "acoustic" and "convective" terms inside the framework of the well-known Roe scheme for the Euler equations, so as to construct a method with the following properties:

(i) The method is conservative, uses Roe-type upwind fluxes, and can stably operate with the convective time step Δt_s ;

(1.3)

(*ii*) The method is "explicit for the convection and implicit for the acoustics".

To clarify the condition (*ii*), "integrating the convection" with an explicit scheme is motivated by accuracy considerations : for the advection equation $\rho_t + u\rho_x = 0$ (with u constant), the first-order accurate upwind explicit scheme operating with $\Delta t \leq \Delta t_s$ is less dissipative than an implicit scheme operating with the same time step (see e.g. [2] and Remark 3.2 below). Besides, we have to "integrate the acoustics" implicitly in order to avoid the acoustic restriction (1.1) on the time step.

Two Roe-type methods aimed at computing low Mach number flows, i.e. satisfying conditions (i) and (ii), will be presented and analysed in Sections 3 and 4 below. We will then discuss some numerical results and conclude our work in the last sections.

2 Notations and basic schemes

Let us first introduce some notations and recall some basic facts about the first-order and second-order accurate Roe schemes.

We will consider for the moment only the one-dimensional Euler equations, which we write :

$$W_t + F_x = 0$$
, (2.1)

with:

$$W = (\rho, \rho u, E)^T$$
, $F = (\rho u, \rho u^2 + p, u(E+p))^T$, (2.2)

$$p = (\gamma - 1) \left(E - \frac{1}{2}\rho u^2 \right) . \qquad (2.3)$$

The jacobian matrix $A(W) = \frac{\partial F}{\partial W}$ being diagonalisable, we may write:

$$A = T\Lambda T^{-1} , \qquad (2.4)$$

the matrix Λ being diagonal: $\Lambda = \text{Diag}(u - c, u, u + c)$; $c = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma p}{\rho}}$ is the sound speed. The columns of the matrix T are the right eigenvectors of A; in particular, we will use below the fact that the eigenvector associated with the second eigenvalue u is proportional to $\left(1, u, \frac{u^2}{2}\right)^T$:

$$A(W)\left(1, u, \frac{u^2}{2}\right)^T = u\left(1, u, \frac{u^2}{2}\right)^T .$$
 (2.5)

We will also need the following non-conservative form of (2.1), with the so-called "physical" variables:

$$\tilde{W}_t + \tilde{A}\tilde{W}_x = 0 , \qquad (2.6)$$

with $\tilde{W} = (\rho, u, p)^T$ and:

$$\tilde{A} = \begin{pmatrix} u & \rho & 0\\ 0 & u & \rho^{-1}\\ 0 & \gamma p & u \end{pmatrix} .$$

$$(2.7)$$

The first-order explicit Roe scheme writes [79] :

$$\frac{W_j^{n+1} - W_j^n}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi_{j+1/2}^n - \phi_{j-1/2}^n}{\Delta x} = 0 , \qquad (2.8)$$

with:

$$\phi_{j+1/2}^{n} = \Phi\left(W_{j}^{n}, W_{j+1}^{n}\right) = \frac{F(W_{j}^{n}) + F(W_{j+1}^{n})}{2} + \frac{1}{2}|\hat{A}_{j+1/2}^{n}|(W_{j}^{n} - W_{j+1}^{n});$$
(2.9)

here, $\hat{A}_{j+1/2}^n = A(\hat{W}_{j+1/2}^n)$ is the Roe matrix at the interface j + 1/2, $\hat{W}_{j+1/2}^n$ being the Roe-average of W_j^n and W_{j+1}^n (see e.g. [79]). Let us recall in particular for future use that the Roe-averaged velocity is given by:

$$\hat{u}_{j+1/2}^{n} = \frac{\sqrt{\rho_{j}^{n}}u_{j}^{n} + \sqrt{\rho_{j+1}^{n}}u_{j+1}^{n}}{\sqrt{\rho_{j}^{n}} + \sqrt{\rho_{j+1}^{n}}} .$$
(2.10)

A linearized implicit version of this scheme is usually written as [90]:

$$\frac{W_j^{n+1} - W_j^n}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi_{j+1/2}^{n+1} - \phi_{j-1/2}^{n+1}}{\Delta t} = 0 , \qquad (2.11)$$

where the flux $\phi_{j+1/2}^{n+1}$, written as an approximate linearization of (2.9), is given by (we denote $\delta W_j = W_j^{n+1} - W_j^n$):

$$\phi_{j+1/2}^{n+1} = \frac{F(W_j^n) + F(W_{j+1}^n)}{2} + \frac{1}{2} |\hat{A}_{j+1/2}^n| \left(W_j^n - W_{j+1}^n\right) \\ + \frac{A(W_j^n) \delta W_j + A(W_{j+1}^n) \delta W_{j+1}}{2} + \frac{1}{2} |\hat{A}_{j+1/2}^n| \left(\delta W_j - \delta W_{j+1}\right).$$
(2.12)

Lastly, we need to introduce a second-order accurate version of the explicit scheme (2.8)-(2.9). We consider the following scheme, introduced by Hancock and Van Leer [97] and extended to finite elements by Fezoui [34], which proceeds in three steps:

$$\frac{\tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} - \tilde{W}_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t/2} + \tilde{A}(\tilde{W}_{j}^{n})s_{j}^{n} = 0 , \text{ with } s_{j}^{n} = \frac{\tilde{W}_{j+1} - \tilde{W}_{j-1}}{2\Delta x} , \qquad (2.13)$$

$$\tilde{W}_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2} = \tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} s_{j}^{n} , \quad \tilde{W}_{j-1/2,+}^{n+1/2} = \tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} - \frac{\Delta x}{2} s_{j}^{n} , \qquad (2.14)$$

$$\frac{W_{j}^{n+1} - W_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t} + \frac{\Phi\left(W_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2}, W_{j+1/2,+}^{n+1/2}\right) - \Phi\left(W_{j-1/2,-}^{n+1/2}, W_{j-1/2,+}^{n+1/2}\right)}{\Delta x} = 0.$$
(2.15)

Notice that the predictor and the interpolation steps are written with the physical variables \tilde{W} ; the predictor is based on the semi-linear form (2.6) of the Euler equations.

3 The acoustic-convective characteristic splitting

Following the idea proposed by G. Fernandez [32], we introduce a first method satisfying our requirements (1.3). This method, called characteristic acoustic-convective splitting, is briefly recalled here. We then will establish some accuracy and stability properties for a simplified problem.

3.1 The first-order acccurate method

Using the diagonalization (2.4) of the jacobian matrix A, we can introduce the two following matrices:

$$A_s = T\Lambda_s T^{-1} , \quad A_f = T\Lambda_f T^{-1} , \qquad (3.1)$$

with:

$$\Lambda_s = \text{Diag}(0, u, 0) , \quad \Lambda_f = \text{Diag}(u - c, 0, u + c) .$$
 (3.2)

Thus, we have split the matrix A into a "slow" matrix A_s and a "fast" matrix A_f , according to the characteristic speeds u - c, u and u + c; obviously we have $A = A_s + A_f$.

We can now introduce the basic, first-order accurate, version of the characteristic acoustic-convective splitting. The method is based on the linearized implicit scheme (2.11)-(2.12), and takes the form:

$$\frac{W_j^{n+1} - W_j^n}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi_{j+1/2}^{n+1} - \phi_{j-1/2}^{n+1}}{\Delta x} = 0 , \qquad (3.3)$$

with now (still denoting $\delta W_j = W_j^{n+1} - W_j^n$):

$$\phi_{j+1/2}^{n+1} = \frac{F(W_j^n) + F(W_{j+1}^n)}{2} + \frac{1}{2} |\hat{A}_{j+1/2}^n| \left(W_j^n - W_{j+1}^n\right) \\ + \frac{A_f(W_j^n) \delta W_j + A_f(W_{j+1}^n) \delta W_{j+1}}{2} + \frac{1}{2} |\hat{A}_{f,j+1/2}^n| \left(\delta W_j - \delta W_{j+1}\right)$$
(3.4)

In words, we keep only the fast part of the matrices in the implicit part, i.e. in the last line of (3.4).

In order to analyse the scheme (3.3)-(3.4), we will first consider its application to a *linear* hyperbolic system. Since the equations for each characteristic variable decouple from each other in such a case, it suffices to consider a 2×2 system. We therefore consider the system:

$$U_t + AU_x = 0 av{3.5}$$

where $U = (v, w)^T \in I\!\!R^2$ and where A is the fixed diagonal matrix:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_s & 0\\ 0 & \lambda_f \end{pmatrix} . \tag{3.6}$$

Assuming that $|\lambda_s| \ll |\lambda_f|$, we will say that v (resp. w) is the slow (resp. fast) variable, and set:

$$A_s = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_s & 0\\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} , \quad A_f = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0\\ 0 & \lambda_f \end{pmatrix} . \tag{3.7}$$

For the sake of simplicity, we will assume that λ_s and λ_f are both positive. Setting F(U) = AU, we can apply the scheme (3.3)-(3.4) to the linear system (3.5). It is then obvious to prove the following result, which shows that our objectives (1.3) are fulfilled in this linear framework :

LEMMA 3.1:

When applied to the linear system (3.5), the scheme (3.3)-(3.4) reduces to :

$$\begin{cases} \frac{v_j^{n+1} - v_j^n}{\Delta t} + \lambda_s \frac{v_j^n - v_{j-1}^n}{\Delta x} = 0 , \\ \frac{w_j^{n+1} - w_j^n}{\Delta t} + \lambda_f \frac{w_j^{n+1} - w_{j-1}^{n+1}}{\Delta x} = 0 . \end{cases}$$
(3.8)

It is therefore explicit for the slow variable v and implicit for the fast variable w. It is stable under the condition :

$$\frac{\lambda_s \Delta t}{\Delta x} \le 1 \quad , \tag{3.9}$$

which only involves the slow characteristic speed λ_s .

Now, we would like to turn back to the Euler equations (2.1). Since the analysis of the behaviour of the method (3.3)-(3.4) for the solution of these equations in a general case is out of reach, we will restrict our attention to the following particular (but instructive) situation : we will consider the solution of the Euler equations with an initial data satisfying :

$$u(x, t = 0) \equiv u_0 , \quad p(x, t = 0) \equiv p_0 ,$$
 (3.10)

where u_0 and p_0 are constant. For the sake of simplicity, we will assume that $u_0 > 0$. It is clear that the Euler equations then reduce to the advection of the density, i.e. that:

$$u(x,t) \equiv u_0 , \quad p(x,t) \equiv p_0 , \quad (3.11)$$

$$\rho_t(x,t) + u_0 \rho_x(x,t) = 0 , \qquad (3.12)$$

for all x and t. We can then state:

PROPOSITION 3.2:

When applied to the Euler equations (2.1) with an initial data satisfying (3.10), the explicit scheme (2.8) and the semi-implicit scheme (3.3)-(3.4) both reduce to:

$$\begin{cases} u_{j}^{n} = u_{0} , \quad p_{j}^{n} = p_{0} \quad for \ all \ j \ and \ n , \\ \frac{\rho_{j}^{n+1} - \rho_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t} + u_{0} \frac{\rho_{j}^{n} - \rho_{j-1}^{n}}{\Delta x} = 0 , \end{cases}$$
(3.13)

whereas the implicit scheme (2.11)-(2.12) reduces to:

$$\begin{cases} u_{j}^{n} = u_{0} , \quad p_{j}^{n} = p_{0} \text{ for all } j \text{ and } n , \\ \frac{\rho_{j}^{n+1} - \rho_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t} + u_{0} \frac{\rho_{j}^{n+1} - \rho_{j-1}^{n+1}}{\Delta x} = 0 . \bullet \end{cases}$$
(3.14)

PROOF : We will only consider the case of the semi-implicit method (3.3)-(3.4), the proof being the same for the two other schemes (2.8) and (2.11)-(2.12).

We therefore want to check that the discrete values given by (3.13) satisfy (3.3)-(3.4). For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and for all j, let us assume that:

$$u_j^n = u_j^{n+1} = u_0 , \quad p_j^n = p_j^{n+1} = p_0 .$$
 (3.15)

Setting $V_0 = \left(1, u_0, \frac{u_0^2}{2}\right)^T$, we easily see from (2.2)-(2.3) and (3.14) that:

$$W_j^{n+1} - W_j^n = (\rho_j^{n+1} - \rho_j^n)V_0 , \quad W_j^n - W_{j+1}^n = (\rho_j^n - \rho_{j+1}^n)V_0 ,$$
 (3.16)

for all j. Moreover, for all index j, the Roe-averaged velocity $\hat{u}_{j+1/2}^n$ is obviously equal to u_0 from (2.10). As a consequence, it follows from (2.5) that both differences (3.16) are eigenvectors of the matrices $A(W_j^n)$, $A(W_{j+1}^n)$ and $\hat{A}_{j+1/2}^n = A(\hat{W}_{j+1/2}^n)$. From (3.1)-(3.2), we can therefore write:

$$A_f(W_j^n)\delta W_j = A_f(W_{j+1}^n)\delta W_{j+1}^n = 0 , \qquad (3.17)$$

$$|\hat{A}_{f,j+1/2}^n|(\delta W_j - \delta W_{j+1}) = 0 , \qquad (3.18)$$

$$|\hat{A}_{j+1/2}^n|(W_j^n - W_{j+1}^n) = |u_0|(\rho_j^n - \rho_{j+1}^n)V_0 .$$
(3.19)

Then, (3.3) reduces to:

$$\frac{W_j^{n+1} - W_j^n}{\Delta t} + \frac{F(W_{j+1}^n) - F(W_{j-1}^n)}{2\Delta x} - \frac{|u_0|}{2} V_0 \left(\frac{\rho_{j+1}^n - 2\rho_j^n + \rho_{j-1}^n}{\Delta x}\right) = 0,$$
(3.20)

which also writes:

$$\frac{\rho_j^{n+1} - \rho_j^n}{\Delta t} V_0 + \frac{\rho_{j+1}^n - \rho_{j-1}^n}{2\Delta x} u_0 V_0 - \frac{|u_0|}{2} V_0 \left(\frac{\rho_{j+1}^n - 2\rho_j^n + \rho_{j-1}^n}{\Delta x}\right) = 0 ,$$
(3.21)

which is equivalent to (3.13).

REMARK 3.1: This result deserves several comments. First, it shows that the semi-implicit method (3.3)-(3.4) is equivalent in the present case to the *explicit* upwind scheme (3.13) for the advection equation (3.12). Also, it is important to realize that Proposition 3.2 says little about the stability of the above schemes : indeed, it just says that, in the present case, the explicit scheme (2.8) and the semi-implicit scheme (3.3)-(3.4) are unstable when the advective scheme (3.13) is unstable, i.e. when $\frac{u_0\Delta t}{\Delta x} > 1$. But, although the stability of the explicit scheme (2.8) is limited by the acoustic restriction (1.1), we may expect that the semi-implicit scheme (3.3)-(3.4) is stable under the convective condition (1.2), i.e.:

$$\frac{u_0 \Delta t}{\Delta x} \le 1 , \qquad (3.22)$$

like the scheme (3.13), since it treats the acoustics implicitly. A hint for this fact (which will be confirmed by the numerical experiments) can be seen by considering a spatially uniform state, as it is usually done in order to introduce the acoustic approximation : then, the linearization of the scheme (3.3)-(3.4) is stable under the condition (3.22) from Lemma 3.1. •

REMARK 3.2: Proposition 3.2 also shows that the semi-implicit scheme (3.3)-(3.4) is more accurate in the present case than both schemes (2.8) and (2.11)-(2.12). First, the method (3.3)-(3.4) is more accurate, for the same time step, than the implicit scheme (2.11)-(2.12), since the dissipative error of the advective scheme (3.14) is proportional to (see e.g. [2]):

$$u_0 \Delta x \left(1 + \frac{u_0 \Delta t}{\Delta x} \right) , \qquad (3.23)$$

while the dissipative error of the scheme (3.14) is proportional to:

$$u_0 \Delta x \left(1 - \frac{u_0 \Delta t}{\Delta x} \right) , \qquad (3.24)$$

hence lower than (3.23) when (3.22) holds. Moreover, the semi-implicit scheme (3.3)-(3.4) will also be eventually less dissipative than the fully explicit scheme (2.8). They both reduce to (3.13), but the semi-implicit method will operate with $\frac{u_0\Delta t}{\Delta x} \approx 1$, while the fully explicit scheme (2.8) will operate with $\frac{u_0\Delta t}{\Delta x} \ll 1$ from (1.1). These observations will be confirmed by our numerical experiments.

3.2 Extension to second-order accuracy

In this section, we will present our contribution to a second-order accurate semi-implicit scheme ; we will show the good properties of our method and prove that it is a real improvement of the scheme initially proposed by G. Fernandez.

We want to extend the semi-implicit scheme (3.3)-(3.4) to second-order accuracy. In fact, we will extend it so that, using the same words as in (1.3), the scheme becomes "explicit and second-order accurate for the convection, and implicit and first-order accurate for the acoustics", so as to keep the strong dissipative properties of (3.3)-(3.4) for the acoustics. Firstly, we have implemented the extension to second-order accuracy proposed by G. Fernandez [32], [33]. This scheme writes :

$$\frac{\tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} - \tilde{W}_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t/2} + \tilde{A}_{s}(\tilde{W}_{j}^{n})s_{j}^{n} = 0 , \text{ with } s_{j}^{n} = \frac{\tilde{W}_{j+1} - \tilde{W}_{j-1}}{2\Delta x} , \quad (3.25)$$

$$\tilde{W}_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2} = \tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} s_{j}^{n} , \quad \tilde{W}_{j-1/2,+}^{n+1/2} = \tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} - \frac{\Delta x}{2} s_{j}^{n} , \quad (3.26)$$

$$\frac{W_j^{n+1} - W_j^n}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi_{j+1/2}^{n+1} - \phi_{j-1/2}^{n+1}}{\Delta x} = 0 , \qquad (3.27)$$

where, for instance :

$$\phi_{j+1/2}^{n+1} = \frac{F_s(W_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2}) + F_s(W_{j+1/2,+}^{n+1/2})}{2} + \frac{1}{2} |\hat{A}_{s,j+1/2}^{n+1/2}| \left(W_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2} - W_{j+1/2,+}^{n+1/2}\right) \\ + \frac{F_f(W_j^n) + F_f(W_{j+1}^n)}{2} + \frac{1}{2} |\hat{A}_{f,j+1/2}^n| \left(W_j^n - W_{j+1}^n\right) \\ + \frac{A_f(W_j^n) \delta W_j + A_f(W_{j+1}^n) \delta W_{j+1}}{2} + \frac{1}{2} |\hat{A}_{f,j+1/2}^n| \left(\delta W_j - \delta W_{j+1}\right) \\ (3.28)$$

and

$$F_s(W) = A_s(W)W, \quad F_f(W) = A_f(W)W.$$
 (3.29)

Using this scheme, we did not obtain satisfactory results as we will see in the numerical results : even using small time steps, we obtain very important spurious oscillations on the numerical solution.

Trying to explain this phenomenon, we can make some remarks.

In order to apply the predictor only to the "slow" part, a fictitious splitting of the flux is introduced $F = F_s + F_f$ in the two first lines of (3.28) while in the first-order accurate scheme, just appear F and the two matrices A_f and A_s . If we look at the two other terms of the two first lines (the matrices), the fluxes are supposed to be such that :

$$\frac{\partial F_s}{\partial W} = A_s(W) , \quad \frac{\partial F_f}{\partial W} = A_f(W) . \tag{3.30}$$

In fact, the splitting (3.29) do not verify the condition (3.30).

Another remark is that the separate systems $W_t + [A_s(W)W]_x = 0$ and $W_t + [A_f(W)W]_x = 0$ are not hyperbolic, condition which is necessary to write (3.28). Applied to the Euler equations with the initial data (3.10), the scheme do not seem completely second-order accurate for the advection of the density.

We now propose a modification of this scheme and will show the good properties of our second-order accurate extension. The scheme takes the following form :

$$\begin{split} \frac{\tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} - \tilde{W}_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t/2} + \tilde{A}_{s}(\tilde{W}_{j}^{n})s_{j}^{n} &= 0 , \quad \text{with } s_{j}^{n} = \frac{\tilde{W}_{j+1} - \tilde{W}_{j-1}}{2\Delta x} , \\ \tilde{W}_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2} &= \tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} + \frac{\Delta x}{2}s_{j}^{n} , \quad \tilde{W}_{j-1/2,+}^{n+1/2} = \tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} - \frac{\Delta x}{2}s_{j}^{n} , \\ &\qquad \qquad \frac{W_{j}^{n+1} - W_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi_{j+1/2}^{n+1/2} - \phi_{j-1/2}^{n+1}}{\Delta x} = 0 , \end{split}$$

with a different writting of the numerical flux :

$$\phi_{j+1/2}^{n+1} = \frac{F(W_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2}) + F(W_{j+1/2,+}^{n+1/2})}{2} + \frac{1}{2} |\hat{A}_{j+1/2}^{n+1/2}| \left(W_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2} - W_{j+1/2,+}^{n+1/2}\right) \\ + \frac{A_f(W_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2}) \delta W_j + A_f(W_{j+1/2,+}^{n+1/2}) \delta W_{j+1}}{2} + \frac{1}{2} |\hat{A}_{f,j+1/2}^{n+1/2}| \left(\delta W_j - \delta W_{j+1}\right) .$$

$$(3.31)$$

Now, the predicted value $W^{n+1/2}$ appears in the "fast" and "slow" parts. No fictive splitting of F is introduced. As in Section 3.1, we will successively analyse the application of this scheme to the linear system (3.5) and to the Euler equations in the purely convective case (3.10). The analogue of Lemma 3.1 reads:

LEMMA 3.3:

When applied to the linear system (3.5), the scheme (3.25)-(3.31) reduces to:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{v_{j}^{n+1/2} - v_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t/2} + \lambda_{s} \frac{v_{j+1}^{n} - v_{j-1}^{n}}{2\Delta x} = 0 ,\\ v_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2} = v_{j}^{n+1/2} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} \frac{v_{j+1}^{n} - v_{j-1}^{n}}{2\Delta x} ,\\ \frac{v_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1} - v_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t} + \lambda_{s} \frac{v_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2} - v_{j-1/2,-}^{n+1/2}}{\Delta x} = 0 ,\\ \begin{cases} w_{j+1/2,-}^{n} = w_{j}^{n} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} \frac{w_{j+1}^{n} - w_{j-1}^{n}}{2\Delta x} ,\\ \frac{w_{j}^{n+1} - w_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t} + \lambda_{f} \frac{w_{j+1/2,-}^{n} - w_{j-1/2,-}^{n}}{\Delta x} + \lambda_{f} \frac{\left(w_{j}^{n+1} - w_{j}^{n}\right) - \left(w_{j-1}^{n+1} - w_{j-1}^{n}\right)}{\Delta x} = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$(3.32)$$

It is explicit second-order accurate for the slow variable v and implicit firstorder accurate for the fast variable w. Lastly, it is stable under the condition:

$$\frac{\lambda_s \Delta t}{\Delta x} \le 1 , \qquad (3.34)$$

which only involves the slow characteristic speed λ_s .

PROOF: Obtaining the relations (3.32)-(3.33) is straightforward. The scheme (3.32) for v is exactly the linear version of the Hancock-Van Leer scheme (2.13)-(2.15); it is known to be second-order accurate and stable under the condition (3.34).

To complete the proof, it remains to show that the (non classical) implicit scheme (3.33) for the variable w is unconditionnally stable. Using a Fourier analysis, we insert $w_j^n = G^n e^{ij\xi}$ for all j and n in (3.33), where G is the amplification factor and ξ the spatial frequency. Setting $\nu = \frac{\lambda_f \Delta t}{\Delta x}$, we obtain from (3.33):

$$G - 1 + \nu \left(1 + \frac{e^{i\xi} - e^{-i\xi}}{4} \right) \left(1 - e^{-i\xi} \right) + \nu (G - 1) \left(1 - e^{-i\xi} \right) = 0 , \quad (3.35)$$

and:

$$G = \frac{1 - \nu \left(1 - e^{-i\xi}\right) \left(\frac{e^{i\xi} - e^{-i\xi}}{4}\right)}{1 + \nu \left(1 - e^{-i\xi}\right)}.$$
 (3.36)

It is then a simple exercise to show that $|G| \leq 1$, for any value of $\nu > 0$. Indeed, the inequality $|G|^2 \leq 1$ is equivalent to:

$$\left|1 - \frac{\nu}{2}\sin\xi\left(i(1 - \cos\xi) - \sin\xi\right)\right|^2 \le |1 + \nu(1 - \cos\xi) + \nu i\sin\xi|^2 \quad (3.37)$$

Expanding these expressions, substituting $1 - \cos^2 \xi$ for $\sin^2 \xi$ and setting $X = \cos \xi$, we obtain:

$$\nu(1+X) + \frac{\nu^2}{2}(1-X^2) \le 2\nu + 2\nu^2 ,$$
(3.38)

or equivalently:

$$\frac{\nu^2}{2}X^2 - \nu X + \frac{3\nu^2}{2} + \nu \ge 0.$$
(3.39)

Seeing the left-hand side of (3.39) as a second-order polynomial in X, it is easy to show that (3.39) holds for any $\nu > 0$ and $X \in [-1, 1]$.

We can also state the analogue of Proposition 3.2:

PROPOSITION 3.4:

When applied to the Euler equations (2.1) with an initial data satisfying (3.10), the semi-implicit scheme (3.25)-(3.31) reduces to:

$$u_j^n = u_0 , \quad p_j^n = p_0 \quad \text{for all } n \text{ and } j , \qquad (3.40)$$

$$\begin{cases}
\frac{\rho_{j}^{n+1/2} - \rho_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t/2} + u_{0} \frac{\rho_{j+1}^{n} - \rho_{j-1}^{n}}{2\Delta x} = 0, \\
\rho_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2} = \rho_{j}^{n+1/2} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} \frac{\rho_{j+1}^{n} - \rho_{j-1}^{n}}{2\Delta x}, \\
\frac{\rho_{j}^{n+1} - \rho_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t} + u_{0} \frac{\rho_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2} - \rho_{j-1/2,-}^{n+1/2}}{\Delta x} = 0.
\end{cases}$$
(3.41)

We omit the proof, which follows exactly the same lines as the proof of Proposition 3.2. The reader should notice that (3.41) is exactly the second-order accurate *explicit* advective scheme (3.32). Our semi-implicit method (3.25)-(3.31) therefore keeps the promising properties of the firstorder method (3.3)-(3.4); this will be confirmed by our numerical experiments.

3.3 Numerical results

We present the numerical results obtained for the nonlinear case described above. The calculations have been realised in two dimensions of space for a rectangular domain $[0.; 120] \times [0.; 30.]$. At initial state, the pressure and the velocity are constant ($\vec{V} = (1., 0.)$), and the density (at y = 15.) is presented on figure 1.

We present two solutions for a Mach number equal to 0.1 and 0.01.

As the convection of the initial density profile is an exact solution of the Euler equations, all the numerical solutions will be compared to this exact solution. We also precise that during the different calculations, we control that the pressure and the velocity remain constant equal to the initial value.

The results of the first order accurate explicit, semi-implicit and implicit schemes are compared on figure 2 (resp. 3) for a Mach number equal to 0.1 (resp. 0.01). The behavior of the two cases (Mach number equal to 0.1 and 0.01) is the same. The scheme being first-order accurate in space, the results are not very good but we can notice that the semi-implicit scheme provides the best solutions as it has been proved in remark 3.2.

We now present the solutions obtained with the second-order accurate schemes. Firstly, on figure 4, we present the solution obtained with the extension to second-order accuracy proposed by G. Fernandez. The two results correspond to two values of the time step. The first solution (DT1) has been obtained using the same time step as our version of the secondorder accurate scheme (half the time step used for the first-order accurate semi-implicit scheme). It shows a chaotic behavior of the solution. When we employ a smaller time step (DT2, the fifth of the first-order accurate scheme time step) the solution is less oscillating but the maximum value of the density is quite higher than the exact solution. Nevertheless, in both case, the value of the pressure and density remain constant during the calculation ; this is an argument to detail the writing of the scheme instead of thinking to a stability problem.

Secondly, we present, on figure 5 (resp. figure 6), the solutions of the explicit, semi-implicit and implicit second-order accurate schemes for a Mach number equal to 0.1 (resp. 0.01). We notice that the implicit scheme is very diffusive. The solutions of the explicit and the semi-implicit schemes are very good and very close. We can notice a little oscillation around the pulse due to the fact that we do not use any limitor for the extension to the second-order accuracy. Concerning the efficiency of this method, the semi-implicit scheme is nearly 5 times more efficient than the explicit scheme for a flow at Mach=0.1 and more than 40 times better for Mach number equal to 0.01.



FIG. 1: Initial profile of the density at y=15.



FIG. 2: First-order accurate schemes - Mach=0.1



FIG. 3: First-order accurate schemes - Mach=0.01



FIG. 4: First version of the second-order accurate semi-implicit scheme - $\mathrm{Mach}{=}0.01$



FIG. 5: Second-order accurate schemes - Mach=0.1


FIG. 6: Second-order accurate schemes - Mach=0.01

4 The acoustic-convective flux splitting

After the characteristic acoustic-convective method based on a separation of the eigenvalues of the Jacobian matrix of the flux, we present here another method based on the splitting of the flux into an acoustic and a convective part transforming the initial problem into the solution of two sub-systems. This splitting and the fractional step approach used to solve these two systems have been introduced by T. Buffard [20].

Applying the same idea as in the previous section, which consists in solving explicitly the convection and implicitly the acoustics, we construct a semi-implicit scheme and extend it to second-order accuracy in space.

For simplicity, we present the method in one dimension of space. The one-dimensional Euler equations are written [20] :

$$W_t + F^1(W)_x + F^2(W)_x = 0 (4.1)$$

where

$$F^{1}(W) = (\rho u, \rho u^{2}, u E)^{t}$$
 and $F^{2}(W) = (0, p, u p)^{t}$ (4.2)

The Jacobian matrix

$$A^{1}(W) = \frac{\partial F^{1}}{\partial W} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -u^{2} & 2u & 0 \\ -u\frac{E}{\rho} & \frac{E}{\rho} & u \end{pmatrix}$$
(4.3)

has the following eigenvalues

$$\lambda_i = u, \quad i = 1, .., 3.$$
 (4.4)

This matrix is not diagonalizable; the right eigenvectors span \mathbb{R}^2 .

The Jacobian matrix

$$A^{2}(W) = \frac{\partial F^{2}}{\partial W} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0\\ (\gamma - 1)\frac{u^{2}}{2} & -(\gamma - 1)u & \gamma - 1\\ u\left((\gamma - 1)\frac{u^{2}}{2} - \frac{p}{\rho}\right) & -(\gamma - 1)u^{2} + \frac{p}{\rho} & (\gamma - 1)u \end{pmatrix}$$
(4.5)

has the following eigenvalues

$$\lambda_1 = 0, \ \lambda_2 = -c', \ \lambda_3 = c' \text{ where } c' = \sqrt{\frac{(\gamma - 1) p}{\rho}}$$
 (4.6)

The fractional step method writes

Step 1: convection
$$W_t + F^1(W)_x = 0$$

Step 2: acoustics $W_t + F^2(W)_x = 0$

4.1 The first-order accurate method

Using the same notations as in the previous sections, the first-order explicit fractional step scheme writes :

Step 1

$$\frac{W_j^{\star} - W_j^n}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi^1(W_j^n, W_{j+1}^n) - \phi^1(W_{j-1}^n, W_j^n)}{\Delta x} = 0$$
(4.7)

Step 2

$$\frac{W_j^{n+1} - W_j^{\star}}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi^2(W_j^{\star}, W_{j+1}^{\star}) - \phi^2(W_{j-1}^{\star}, W_j^{\star})}{\Delta x} = 0$$
(4.8)

The numerical flux ϕ^1 is calculated applying the following upwind scheme :

$$\phi^{1}(W_{i}, W_{j}) = \begin{cases} F^{1}(W_{i}) & \text{if } \hat{u} > 0\\ F^{1}(W_{j}) & \text{if } \hat{u} < 0\\ \frac{1}{2} \left(F^{1}(W_{i}) + F^{1}(W_{j})\right) & \text{if } \hat{u} = 0 \end{cases}$$
(4.9)

where

$$\hat{u} = \frac{\sqrt{\rho_i} \, u_i + \sqrt{\rho_j} \, u_j}{\sqrt{\rho_i} + \sqrt{\rho_j}}$$

and with the additional condition

$$\phi^1(W_i, W_j) = 0 \text{ if } u_i < 0 < u_j.$$
 (4.10)

More details about the obtention of this scheme can be found in [20].

The second system being hyperbolic, the numerical flux ϕ^2 is calculated using the classical Roe scheme

$$\phi^{2}(W_{i}, W_{j}) = \frac{F^{2}(W_{i}) + F^{2}(W_{j})}{2} + \frac{1}{2} |A^{2}(\hat{W})| (W_{i} - W_{j})$$

where the matrix

$$|A^{2}(W)| = c' \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -u & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{u^{2}}{2} & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

After calculation, ϕ^2 reduces to

$$\phi^{2}(W_{i}, W_{j}) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ p_{i} + p_{j} - \hat{c}' \hat{\rho} (u_{j} - u_{i}) \\ u_{i} p_{i} + u_{j} p_{j} - \hat{c}' \hat{\rho} \hat{u} (u_{j} - u_{i}) \end{pmatrix}$$
(4.11)

where

$$\hat{\rho} = \sqrt{\rho_i \rho_j}, \quad \hat{c'} = \sqrt{(\gamma - 1)\left(\frac{\hat{p}}{\rho}\right)} \text{ and } \left(\frac{\hat{p}}{\rho}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{\rho_i}\frac{p_i}{\rho_i} + \sqrt{\rho_j}\frac{p_j}{\rho_j}}{\sqrt{\rho_i} + \sqrt{\rho_j}} \quad (4.12)$$

To analyse the behavior of this splitting, we will consider, as in the previous sections, the solution of the Euler equations with the initial data satisfying $u(x, t = 0) \equiv u_0$, $p(x, t = 0) \equiv p_0$.

PROPOSITION 4.1:

When applied to the Euler equations (4.1) with an initial data satisfying (3.10), the explicit scheme (4.7)-(4.8) reduces to:

$$\begin{cases} u_{j}^{n} = u_{0} , \quad p_{j}^{n} = p_{0} \text{ for all } j \text{ and } n , \\ \frac{\rho_{j}^{n+1} - \rho_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t} + u_{0} \frac{\rho_{j}^{n} - \rho_{j-1}^{n}}{\Delta x} = 0 \bullet \end{cases}$$
(4.13)

PROOF : At $t = n \Delta t$, let us assume that for all j, $u_j^n = u_0$ and $p_j^n = p_0$. Step 1 : Since $\hat{u} = u_0$ and $u_0 > 0$,

$$\phi^{1}(W_{i}, W_{i+1}) = \begin{pmatrix} \rho_{i} u_{0} \\ \rho_{i} u_{0}^{2} \\ u_{0} E_{i} = u_{0} \left(\frac{\gamma p_{0}}{\gamma - 1} + \frac{1}{2} \rho_{i} u_{0}^{2} \right) \end{pmatrix}$$

The scheme becomes

$$\frac{1}{\Delta t} \begin{pmatrix} \rho_i^{\star} - \rho_i^n \\ (\rho u)_i^{\star} - \rho_i u_0 \\ E_i^{\star} - E_i^n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} u_0 \\ u_0^2 \\ \frac{u_0^3}{2} \end{pmatrix} \frac{\rho_i^n - \rho_{i-1}^n}{\Delta x} = 0$$

Since $E = \frac{\gamma p}{\gamma - 1} + \frac{1}{2} \rho u^2$, we easily show that the first step reduces to

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\rho_{i}^{\star} - \rho_{i}^{n}}{\Delta t} + u_{0} \frac{\rho_{i}^{n} - \rho_{i-1}^{n}}{\Delta x} = 0\\ u_{i}^{\star} = u_{0}, \quad p_{i}^{\star} = p_{0} \end{cases}$$

<u>Step 2</u> : Since for all $j, u_j^{\star} = u_0$, the Roe scheme writes very simply

$$\phi^2 \left(W_i, W_j
ight) = \left(egin{array}{c} 0 \ p_0 \ u_0 \ p_0 \end{array}
ight)$$

Then, the second step becomes

$$W_i^{n+1} - W_i^{\star} = 0$$

and the demonstration of the proposition is achieved.

We can write a semi-implicit version of the fractional step scheme by applying a linearized implicit scheme for the acoustic step. This scheme writes :

Step 1

$$\frac{W_{j}^{\star} - W_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi^{1}\left(W_{j}^{n}, W_{j+1}^{n}\right) - \phi^{1}\left(W_{j-1}^{n}, W_{j}^{n}\right)}{\Delta x} = 0 \qquad (4.14)$$

 $\underline{\mathrm{Step}\ 2}$

$$\frac{W_j^{n+1} - W_j^{\star}}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi^2 \left(W_j^{n+1}, W_{j+1}^{n+1} \right) - \phi^2 \left(W_{j-1}^{n+1}, W_j^{n+1} \right)}{\Delta x} = 0 \qquad (4.15)$$

where

$$\phi^{2}\left(W_{j}^{n+1}, W_{j+1}^{n+1}\right) = \frac{F^{2}\left(W_{j}^{\star}\right) + F^{2}\left(W_{j+1}^{\star}\right)}{2} + \frac{1}{2}|A^{2}\left(\tilde{W}\right)|\left(W_{j}^{\star} - W_{j+1}^{\star}\right)}{2} + \frac{A^{2}\left(W_{j}^{\star}\right)\delta W_{j} + A^{2}\left(W_{j+1}^{\star}\right)\delta W_{j+1}}{2} + \frac{1}{2}|A^{2}\left(\tilde{W}\right)|\left(\delta W_{j} - \delta W_{j+1}\right)}{(4.16)}$$

where $\delta W_j = W_j^{n+1} - W_j^{\star}$.

We can also write an implicit version of the fractional step where the convective and the acoustic step are treated implicitly. The scheme writes : Step 1

$$\frac{W_{j}^{\star} - W_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi^{1}\left(W_{j}^{\star}, W_{j+1}^{\star}\right) - \phi^{1}\left(W_{j-1}^{\star}, W_{j}^{\star}\right)}{\Delta x} = 0 \qquad (4.17)$$

Step 2

$$\frac{W_j^{n+1} - W_j^{\star}}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi^2 \left(W_j^{n+1}, W_{j+1}^{n+1} \right) - \phi^2 \left(W_{j-1}^{n+1}, W_j^{n+1} \right)}{\Delta x} = 0 \qquad (4.18)$$

where the linearization of the convective numerical flux expresses as :

$$\phi^{1}\left(W_{j}^{\star}, W_{j+1}^{\star}\right) = \phi^{1}\left(W_{j}^{n}, W_{j+1}^{n}\right) + \frac{\partial\phi^{1}\left(W_{j}^{n}\right)}{\partial W}\left(W_{j}^{\star} - W_{j}^{n}\right) + \frac{\partial\phi^{1}\left(W_{j+1}^{n}\right)}{\partial W}\left(W_{j+1}^{\star} - W_{j}^{n}\right)$$
(4.19)

where

$$\frac{\partial \phi^1\left(W_j^n\right)}{\partial W} = \begin{cases} \frac{\partial F^1}{\partial W}(W_j) & \text{if } \hat{u} > 0\\ 0 & \text{if } \hat{u} < 0 & \text{and } \frac{\partial \phi^1\left(W_{j+1}^n\right)}{\partial W} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \hat{u} > 0\\ \frac{\partial F^1}{\partial W}(W_{j+1}) & \text{if } \hat{u} < 0\\ \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial F^1}{\partial W}(W_j) & \text{if } \hat{u} = 0 \end{cases}$$

4.2 Extension to the second-order accuracy

To extend the scheme to second-order spatial accuracy, we employ the same method as already described for the acoustic-convective characteristic splitting. For instance, for the explicit version of the method, we apply a predictor-corrector scheme at each step. The scheme writes : Step 1

$$\begin{aligned}
\tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} &- \tilde{W}_{j}^{n} + \tilde{A}^{1} \left(\tilde{W}_{j}^{n} \right) s_{j}^{n} = 0 \text{ with } s_{j}^{n} = \frac{\tilde{W}_{j+1}^{n} - \tilde{W}_{j-1}^{n}}{2 \Delta x} \\
\tilde{W}_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2} &= \tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} s_{j}^{n}, \quad \tilde{W}_{j-1/2,+}^{n+1/2} = \tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} - \frac{\Delta x}{2} s_{j}^{n} \\
\frac{W_{j}^{\star} - W_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi^{1} \left(W_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2}, W_{j+1/2,+}^{n+1/2} \right) - \phi^{1} \left(W_{j-1/2,-}^{n+1/2}, W_{j-1/2,+}^{n+1/2} \right)}{\Delta x} = 0 \\
\end{aligned}$$
(4.21)

Step 2

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\tilde{W}_{j}^{\star\star} - \tilde{W}_{j}^{\star}}{\Delta t/2} + \tilde{A}^{2} \left(\tilde{W}_{j}^{\star} \right) s_{j}^{\star} = 0 \text{ with } s_{j}^{\star} = \frac{\tilde{W}_{j+1}^{\star} - \tilde{W}_{j-1}^{\star}}{2\Delta x} \\ \tilde{W}_{j+1/2,-}^{\star\star} = \tilde{W}_{j}^{\star\star} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} s_{j}^{\star}, \quad \tilde{W}_{j-1/2,+}^{\star\star} = \tilde{W}_{j}^{\star\star} - \frac{\Delta x}{2} s_{j}^{\star} \\ \frac{W_{j}^{n+1} - W_{j}^{\star}}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi^{2} \left(W_{j+1/2,-}^{\star\star}, W_{j+1/2,+}^{\star\star} \right) - \phi^{2} \left(W_{j-1/2,-}^{\star\star}, W_{j-1/2,+}^{\star\star} \right)}{\Delta x} = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$(4.22)$$

where \tilde{A}^1 and \tilde{A}^2 are the matrices coming from the non-conservative form and \tilde{W} is the physical variable. The expression of the matrices is the following ;

$$\tilde{A}^{1} = \begin{pmatrix} u & \rho & 0 \\ 0 & u & 0 \\ 0 & p & u \end{pmatrix} \quad \tilde{A}^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \rho^{-1} \\ 0 & (\gamma - 1) p & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and we verify that $\tilde{A}^1 + \tilde{A}^2 = \tilde{A}$.

We can also write a semi-implicit version of the second-order accurate scheme by mixing a predictor-corrector second-order accurate scheme for the first step and an implicit second-order accurate scheme for the second step. The expression of the scheme is Step 1 : same expression as (4.21).

Step 2

Ś

$$\begin{cases} \tilde{W}_{j+1/2,-}^{\star} = \tilde{W}_{j}^{\star} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} s_{j}^{\star}, \quad \tilde{W}_{j-1/2,+}^{\star} = \tilde{W}_{j}^{\star} - \frac{\Delta x}{2} s_{j}^{\star} \\ \text{with } s_{j}^{\star} = \frac{\tilde{W}_{j+1}^{\star} - \tilde{W}_{j-1}^{\star}}{2\Delta x} \\ \frac{W_{j}^{n+1} - W_{j}^{\star}}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi^{2} \left(W_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1}, W_{j+1/2,+}^{n+1} \right) - \phi^{2} \left(W_{j-1/2,-}^{n+1}, W_{j-1/2,+}^{n+1} \right)}{\Delta x} = 0 \\ \end{cases}$$
(4.23)

(4.23) the expression of $\phi^2(W_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1}, W_{j+1/2,+}^{n+1})$ being deduced from the linearized implicit scheme (4.16).

We have also implemented an implicit version by introducing the MUSCL approach at both steps without prediction. Step 1

$$\frac{\tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} - \tilde{W}_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t/2} + \tilde{A}^{1} \left(\tilde{W}_{j}^{n}\right) s_{j}^{n} = 0 \text{ with } s_{j}^{n} = \frac{\tilde{W}_{j+1}^{n} - \tilde{W}_{j-1}^{n}}{2\Delta x} \\
\tilde{W}_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1/2} = \tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} + \frac{\Delta x}{2} s_{j}^{n}, \quad \tilde{W}_{j-1/2,+}^{n+1/2} = \tilde{W}_{j}^{n+1/2} - \frac{\Delta x}{2} s_{j}^{n} \\
- \frac{W_{j}^{\star} - W_{j}^{n}}{\Delta t} + \frac{\phi^{1} \left(W_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1}, W_{j+1/2,+}^{n+1}\right) - \phi^{1} \left(W_{j-1/2,-}^{n+1}, W_{j-1/2,+}^{n+1}\right)}{\Delta x} = 0 \\$$
(4.24)

where the writing of $\phi^1(W_{j+1/2,-}^{n+1}, W_{j+1/2,+}^{n+1})$ is deduced from the linearized implicit scheme (4.19)-(4.20). Step 2 : same scheme as (4.23).

4.3 Numerical results

For this scheme, we study the same case as in the previous section i.e. the convection of the density profile presented on figure 1. The conditions are exactly the same as previously: the calculations are done in two dimensions of space, solutions have been obtained for two different values of the Mach number (Mach number = 0.1 and 0.01) and are compared to the exact solution.

The results of the first-order accurate explicit, semi-implicit and implicit schemes are compared on figure 7 (resp. 8) for a Mach number equal to 0.1 (resp. 0.01). We notice that for a Mach number equat to 0.1 the semi-implicit scheme provides the best solution and the implicit scheme is very diffusive. For a Mach number equal to 0.01, no visible difference appear between the solutions of the different schemes. When we compare this solution to the figure 7, we notice that the three solutions are comparable to the result of the explicit scheme. To explain this phenomenon, it firstly seems that the semi-implicit scheme becomes less accurate when the Mach number decreases and secondly, the stability of the implicit scheme do not allow very large time steps ; that can explain the weak diffusion of the implicit scheme in this case.

The results of the second-order accurate explicit, semi-implicit and implicit schemes are presented on figure 9 (resp. 10) for a Mach number equal to 0.1 (resp. 0.01). As for the first-order accurate schemes, the behavior of the solutions depends on the Mach number. For a Mach number equal to 0.1, we remark that the semi-implicit scheme provides the more accurate solutions, better than the explicit scheme and that the accuracy has been really improved. In return, for a Mach number equal to 0.01, we notice that the semi-implicit scheme looses accuracy and provides a solution comparable to that of the explicit scheme. Moreover, the explicit and the semi-implicit schemes produce better solutions than the implicit scheme ; it was not the case for the first-order accurate implicit scheme. Concerning the efficiency of the second-order accurate schemes, for a Mach number equal to 0.1, the semi-implicit scheme is 50% more efficient than the explicit scheme. On the other hand, for a Mach number equal to 0.01, the gain obtained by using the semi-implicit scheme is about 5% only. The implicit scheme, inverting two matrices at each time step is not efficient compared to the two other schemes, that for both Mach numbers. This result is due to the fact that for stability reasons, it has not been possible to use large time steps in the semi-implicit and implicit schemes.

To show that the accuracy of the semi-implicit scheme is very dependent of the Mach number of the flow, we have realized calculations for Mach numbers equal to 0.025, 0.05, 0.075, 0.11 and 0.125 and we have plotted, on figure 11, the maximum value of the density of the pulse as a function of the Mach number. It is obvious to see that, for the highest values of the Mach number (0.1, 0.11 and 0.125) the accuracy of the scheme is very good and that for lower values of the Mach number, this simple treatment of the equations do not allow accurate solutions.



FIG. 7: Comparison of first-order schemes - Mach number = 0.1



FIG. 8: Comparison of first-order schemes - Mach number = 0.01



FIG. 9: Comparison of second-order schemes - Mach number = 0.1



FIG. 10: Comparison of second-order schemes - Mach number = 0.01



FIG. 11: Maximum of the density as function of the Mach number

5 Conclusion

We have presented two different methods to solve low Mach number flow problems.

The first method, called characteristic splitting, is based on a separation of the convective and acoustic eigenvalues in the jacobian matrix of the flux appearing in the Euler equations. The second-order accurate semi-implicit scheme fulfil all the conditions : the solution can be nearly surimposed to the exact solution and the time step allowed by the scheme is almost independent of the Mach number.

The second method, called flux splitting, separates the flux of the Euler equations in a convective and an acoustic part and treats them differently in a fractional step approach. The results obtained for a Mach number equal to 0.1 are encouraging, even if the characteristic splitting method provides better solutions. But, when the Mach number decreases, the accuracy and the efficiency of this method is far from the results of the first method. We could consider an improvement of this method by a more sophisticated treatment of the fractional step approach especially for the second-order accuracy in space ; in practice, for instance for the explicit scheme, we have simply combined two steps of a predictor-corrector scheme without a detailed study of the accuracy and stability properties. This study is the first perspective to this work.

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