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Abstract

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Key words: aaa, bbb, ccc

1. Introduction

Over the past years an increasing interest raised for computational methods that can solve both compressible and incompressible flows. In engineering applications, there is often the need to solve for complex flows where a near incompressible regime or low Mach flow coexists with a supersonic flow domain. For example, such flow are encountered in aerodynamic in the study of airships. In the nuclear industry, flows are nearly the incompressible regime but compressible effects cannot be neglected because of the heat source and thus needs to be accurately resolved.

Because of the hyperbolic nature of the flow equations, numerical methods are required in order to accurately resolve shocks that can form during transonic and supersonic flows. Numerous numerical methods are available in the literature: flux-limiter, pressure-based viscosity method, Lapidus method, the entropy-viscosity method among others. These numerical methods are usually tested and developed using simple equation of states and for transonic and supersonic flows where the disparity between the acoustic waves and the fluid speed is not large since the Mach number is of order one.

2. The Entropy Viscosity Method

2.1. Background

In this section, the entropy-based viscosity method [? ? ?] is recalled for the multi-D Euler equations (with constant area A) [?]. As mentioned in Section 1 the entropy-based viscosity method consists of adding dissipative terms, with

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23 a viscosity coefficient modulated by the entropy production which allows high-
 24 order accuracy when the solution is smooth. Thus, two questions arise: (i)
 25 how are the viscosity dissipative terms derived and (ii) how to numerically
 26 compute the entropy production. Answers to the first question can be found
 27 in [?] by Guermond et al., that details the proof leading to the derivation of
 28 the artificial dissipative terms (Eq. (1)) consistent with the entropy minimum
 29 principle theorem. The viscous regularization obtained is valid for any equation
 30 of state as long as the opposite of the physical entropy function is convex.

$$\begin{cases} \partial_t(\rho) + \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\rho \vec{u}) = \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\kappa \vec{\nabla} \rho) \\ \partial_t(\rho \vec{u}) + \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\rho \vec{u} \otimes \vec{u} + P \mathbf{I}) = \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\mu \rho \vec{\nabla} \vec{u} + \kappa \vec{u} \otimes \vec{\nabla} \rho) \\ \partial_t(\rho E) + \vec{\nabla} \cdot [\vec{u}(\rho E + P)] = \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\kappa \vec{\nabla}(\rho e) + \frac{1}{2} \|\vec{u}\|^2 \kappa \vec{\nabla} \rho + \rho \mu \vec{u} \vec{\nabla} \vec{u}) \\ P = P(\rho, e) \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

31 where κ and μ are local positive viscosity coefficients.
 32 The existence of a specific entropy s , function of the density ρ and the internal
 33 energy e is assumed. Convexity of $-s$ with respect to e and $1/\rho$ is required,
 34 along with the following equality verified by the partial derivatives of s : $P \partial_e s +$
 35 $\rho^2 \partial_\rho s = 0$.
 36 One crucial step remains a definition for the local viscosity coefficients μ and κ .
 37 In the current version of the method, κ and μ are set equal, so that the above
 38 viscous regularization (Eq. (1)) is equivalent to the parabolic regularization
 39 [?]. The current definition includes a first-order viscosity coefficient referred
 40 to with the subscript *max*, and a high-order viscosity coefficient referred to
 41 with the subscript *e*. The first-order viscosity coefficients μ_{max} and κ_{max} are
 42 proportional to the local largest eigenvalue $\|\vec{u}\| + c$ and equivalent to an upwind-
 43 scheme, when used, which is known to be over-dissipative and monotone [?]:

$$\mu_{max}(\vec{r}, t) = \kappa_{max}(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{h}{2} (\|\vec{u}\| + c), \quad (2)$$

44 where h is the spatial grid size.
 45 The second-order viscosity coefficients κ_e and μ_e are set proportional to the
 46 entropy production that is evaluated by computing the local entropy residual
 47 D_e . It also includes the interfacial jump of the entropy flux J that will allow to
 48 detect any discontinuities other than shocks:

$$\mu_e(\vec{r}, t) = \kappa_e(\vec{r}, t) = h^2 \frac{\max(|D_e(\vec{r}, t)|, J)}{\|s - \bar{s}\|_\infty} \quad \text{with } D_e(\vec{r}, t) = \partial_t s + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla} s \quad (3)$$

49 where $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ and $\bar{\cdot}$ denote the infinite norm operator and the average operator
 50 over the entire computational domain, respectively. The definition of the jump
 51 J is discretization-dependent and examples of definition can be found in [?]
 52 for DGFEM. The denominator $\|s - \bar{s}\|_\infty$ is used for dimensionality purposes
 53 and should not be of the same order as h , on penalty of loosing the high-
 54 order accuracy. Currently, there are no theoretical justification for choosing the

denominator.

The definition of the viscosity coefficients μ and κ is function of the first- and second-order viscosity coefficients as follows:

$$\mu(\vec{r}, t) = \min(\mu_e(\vec{r}, t), \mu_{max}(\vec{r}, t)) \text{ and } \kappa(\vec{r}, t) = \min(\kappa_e(\vec{r}, t), \kappa_{max}(\vec{r}, t)). \quad (4)$$

This definition allows the following properties. In shock regions, the second-order viscosity coefficient experiences a peak because of entropy production, and thus, saturates to the first-order viscosity that is known to be over-dissipative and will smooth out oscillations. Anywhere else, the entropy production being small, the viscosity coefficients μ and κ are of order h^2 .

Using the above definition of the entropy-based viscosity method, high-order accuracy was demonstrated and excellent results were obtained with 1-D Sod shock tubes and various 2-D tests [? ? ?].

2.2. Issues in the Low-Mach Regime

In the Low-Mach Regime, the flow is known to be isentropic resulting in very little entropy production. Since the entropy viscosity method is directly based on the evaluation of the local entropy production, it will be interested to study how the entropy viscosity coefficients μ and κ scale in the low Mach regime. Mathematically, it means that the entropy residual D_e will be very small, so will be the denominator $\|s - \bar{s}\|_\infty$, thus making the ratio, used in the definition of the viscosity coefficients Eq. (3), undetermined. Therefore, the current definition of the viscosity coefficients seems unadapted to subsonic flow and could lead to ill-scaled dissipative terms. A solution would be to recast the entropy residual as a function of other variables in order to have more freedom in the choice of the normalization parameter. The idea is to still define the viscosity coefficient proportional to the entropy residual that is a good indicator of the flow type (subsonic or supersonic).

3. All-speed Reformulation of Entropy Viscosity Method

In this section, it is shown how the entropy residual D_e can be recast as a function of the pressure, the density and the speed of sound. Then, an low Mach asymptotic study of the multi-D Euler equations is performed in order to derive the correct normalization parameter.

3.1. New Entropy Production Residual

The first step in defining a viscosity coefficient that behaves well in the low mach limit is to recast the entropy residual in terms of thermodynamic variables:

$$D_e(\vec{r}, t) = \partial_t s + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla} s = \frac{s_e}{P_e} \left(\underbrace{\frac{dP}{dt} - c^2 \frac{d\rho}{dt}}_{\tilde{D}_e(\vec{r}, t)} \right), \quad (5)$$

where $\frac{d}{dt}$ denotes the material or total derivative, and P_e is the partial derivative of pressure with respect to internal energy. The steps that lead to the new formulation of the entropy residual D_e can be found in APPENDIX. The entropy residual D_e and \tilde{D}_e are proportional to each other and therefore will experience the same variation when taking the absolute value. Thus, locally evaluating \tilde{D}_e instead of D_e should allow us to measure the entropy production point wise. This new expression given in Eq. (5) has multiple advantages:

- an analytical expression of the entropy function is not longer needed: the entropy residual \tilde{D}_e is evaluated using the local values of the pressure, the density and the speed of sound. Deriving an entropy function for some complex equation of states can be difficult.
- with the proposed expression of the entropy residual function of pressure and density, additional normalizations suitable for low Mach flows of the entropy residual can be devised. Examples include the pressure itself, or combination of the density, the speed of sound and the norm of the velocity: ρc^2 , $\rho c||\vec{u}||$ and $\rho||\vec{u}||^2$.

The viscosity coefficients μ and κ are defined proportional to the new entropy residual \tilde{D}_e on the model of Eq. (3) as follows:

$$\mu(\vec{r}, t) = \kappa(\vec{r}, t) = h^2 \frac{\max(\tilde{D}_e, J)}{n(P)} \quad (6)$$

where $n(P)$ is a normalization parameter to determine and all other variables were defined previously.

As mentioned earlier, the normalization parameter $n(P)$ must be of the same units as the pressure for the viscosity coefficients to have the unit of a dynamic viscosity (m^2/s). Multiples options are available to us (P , ρc^2 , $\rho c||\vec{u}||$ and $\rho||\vec{u}||^2$). The choice of the normalization parameter cannot be random if the definition of the viscosity coefficient is wanted to be well-scaled for a wide range of Mach numbers. For example, by choosing $n(P) = \rho||\vec{u}||^2$, the viscosity coefficient will become very large as the Mach number decreases which would be unnecessary since the equations will not develop any shock or discontinuity. Therefore, it is proposed to carry, in Section 3.2, a low-Mach asymptotic study of the multi-D Euler equations in order to determine the correct expression for the normalization parameter $n(P)$.

3.2. Low-Mach asymptotic study of the multi-D Euler equations

The asymptotic study requires the multi-D Euler equations to be non dimensionalized: the objective is to make the Mach number appears and thus, use a polynomial expansion of the variables as a function of the Mach number in order to derive the leading, first- and second-order equations. Before detailing the steps of the asymptotic method, let us have a closer look at the system of equations under consideration. The initial system of equations is composed of the multi-D Euler equations. For stability purpose, artificial dissipative terms

are added to each equation as explained in Section 2. The resulting system of equations is alike the multi-D Navier-Stokes equations in a sense that it contains second-order derivative terms. Thus, it would be interesting to look at the steps employed in the study of the asymptotic study of the multi-D Navier-Stokes equations in order to understand how the dissipative terms are treated. Fortunately, this process is well-documented in the literature (REFS) for both multi-D Euler equations and Navier-Stokes equations. The work presented here is mainly inspired of (REF) that focuses on the asymptotic study in the low Mach regime of Navier-Stokes equations. During the derivation, the reader has to keep in mind that the objective of this section is to derive a normalization parameter for the definition of the viscosity coefficients so that the multi-D Euler equations degenerate to the incompressible system of equations, which implies that the dissipative terms are well-scaled. The full derivation that leads to the final result can be found in APPENDIX. In this section, only the main steps are recalled.

To express Eq. (1) in dimensionless variables, the following definitions are used

$$\begin{aligned}\rho &= \frac{\rho^*}{\rho_\infty}, P = \frac{P^*}{\rho_\infty c_\infty^2}, \mu = \frac{\mu^*}{\mu_\infty}, E = \frac{E^*}{c_\infty^2}, \mu = \frac{\mu^*}{\mu_\infty}, \\ \kappa &= \frac{\kappa^*}{\kappa_\infty}, x = \frac{x^*}{L_\infty}, t = \frac{t^*}{L_\infty/u_\infty}, u = \frac{u^*}{u_\infty}\end{aligned}$$

where the subscript ∞ and the upper script $*$ denote far field or stagnation quantities and the dimensionless variables, respectively. The reference quantities are chosen such that the non dimensional flow quantities are of order one for any low reference-Mach number

$$M_\infty = \frac{u_\infty^*}{c_\infty^*} \quad (7)$$

where c_∞^* is a reference value for the speed of sound.

Then, using the non dimensional quantities and the multi-D Euler equations from Eq. (1), the following non dimensional form is obtained:

$$\begin{cases} \partial_t \rho + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{u}) = \frac{1}{Re_\infty Pr_\infty} \nabla \cdot (\kappa \nabla \rho) \\ \partial_t (\rho \vec{u}) + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{u} \otimes \vec{u}) + \frac{1}{M_\infty^2} \nabla (P) = \frac{1}{Re_\infty} \nabla \cdot (\rho \mu \nabla \vec{u}) + \frac{1}{Re_\infty Pr_\infty} \nabla \cdot (\vec{u} \otimes \kappa \nabla \rho) \\ \partial_t (\rho E) + \nabla \cdot [\vec{u} (\rho E + P)] = \frac{1}{Re_\infty Pr_\infty} \nabla \cdot (\kappa \nabla (\rho E)) + \frac{M_\infty^2}{Re_\infty} \nabla \cdot (\vec{u} \rho \mu \nabla \vec{u}) \\ + \frac{M_\infty^2}{2 Re_\infty Pr_\infty} \nabla \cdot (\kappa u^2 \nabla \rho) \\ P = (\gamma - 1) (\rho E + M_\infty^2 \rho u^2) \end{cases}$$

where the *numerical* Reynolds (Re_∞) and Prandtl (Pr_∞) numbers are defined as follows:

$$Re_\infty = \frac{u_\infty L_\infty}{\mu_\infty} \text{ and } Pr_\infty = \frac{\mu_\infty}{\kappa_\infty}.$$

Since it is chosen to have the same definition for both μ and κ the numerical Prandtl number is unconditionally equal to one: $Pr_\infty = 1$. // Once the dimensionless equations are obtained, the next step consists of expanding each

variable in term of the Mach number (example given in Eq. (8) for the pressure P) in order to derive the leading, first- and second-order equations.

$$P(\vec{r}, t) = P_0(\vec{r}, t) + P_1(\vec{r}, t)M_\infty + P_2(\vec{r}, t)M_\infty^2 + \dots \text{ with } M_\infty \rightarrow 0 \quad (8)$$

Before deriving the leading-order equation, a choice needs to be made on how the numerical Reynolds number scales. Multiple options are available to us and a few example are given: $Re_\infty = M_\infty$, or $Re_\infty = M_\infty^{-1}$ or $Re_\infty = 1$. Let us assume for academy purpose that the numerical Reynolds number scales as the inverse of the Mach number square: $Re_\infty = M_\infty^{-2}$. The best way to evaluate the impact of this choice on the equations, is to look at the momentum equation and try to derive the order M_∞^{-2} :

$$\vec{\nabla} P_0 = \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\rho_0 \mu_0 \vec{\nabla} \vec{u}_0 + \vec{u}_0 \otimes \vec{\nabla} \rho_0) \quad (9)$$

which is known to be (REF)

$$\vec{\nabla} P_0 = 0 \quad (10)$$

It is clear that Eq. (9) and Eq. (10) will not yield the same result. The same conclusion is drawn when deriving the order M_∞^{-1} of the momentum equation, making our initial assumption not suitable. From the above result, it is understood that the numerical Reynolds number has to scale as one so that it does not affect the orders M_∞^{-2} and M_∞^{-1} of the momentum equations: $Re_\infty = 1$. Thus, with such assumption, Eq. (8) implies:

At order M_∞^{-2} :

$$\vec{\nabla} P_0 = 0$$

At order M_∞^{-1} :

$$\vec{\nabla} P_1 = 0$$

At leading-order:

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_t \rho_0 + \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\rho_0 \vec{u}_0) &= \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\kappa_0 \vec{\nabla} \rho_0) \\ \partial_t (\rho_0 \vec{u}_0) + \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\rho_0 \vec{u}_0 \otimes \vec{u}_0) + \vec{\nabla} P_2 &= \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\rho_0 \mu_0 \vec{\nabla} \vec{u}_0 + \vec{u}_0 \otimes \vec{\nabla} \rho_0) \\ \partial_t (\rho_0 E_0) + \vec{\nabla} \cdot [\vec{u}_0 (\rho_0 E_0 + P_0)] &= \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\kappa_0 \vec{\nabla} (\rho_0 e_0)) \end{aligned}$$

Under this form, the dissipative terms are well-scaled and should not alter the physical solution in the asymptotic limit.

4. Solution Techniques Spatial and Temporal Discretizations

In order to detail the partial and temporal discretization used for this study, the system of equations presented in Section 1 is considered under the following form:

$$\partial_t U + \vec{\nabla} \cdot F(U) = S \quad (11)$$

where U is the vector solution, F is a conservative vector flux and S is a vector source that can contain some relaxation source terms and non-conservative terms.

180 4.1. Spatial and Temporal Discretizations

181 The system of equation given in Eq. (11) is discretized using a continuous
 182 Galerkin finite element method and high-order temporal integrators provided
 183 by the MOOSE framework.

184 4.1.1. CFEM

185 In order to apply the continuous finite element method, Eq. (11) is multiplied
 186 by a smooth test function ϕ , integrated by part and each integral is split onto
 187 each finite element e of the discrete mesh Ω bounded by $\partial\Omega$, to obtain a weak
 188 solution:

$$\sum_e \int_e \partial_t U \phi - \sum_e \int_e F(U) \cdot \vec{\nabla} \phi + \int_{\partial\Omega} F(U) \vec{n} \phi - \sum_e \int_e S \phi = 0 \quad (12)$$

189 The integrals over the elements e are evaluated using quadrature-point rules.
 190 The Moose framework provides a wide range of test function and quadrature
 191 rules: trapezoidal and Gauss rules among others. Linear Lagrange polynomials
 192 will be used as test functions and should ensure second-order convergence for
 193 smooth functions. The order of convergence will be demonstrated.

194 4.1.2. Temporal integrator

195 The MOOSE framework offers both first- and second-order explicit and im-
 196 plicit temporal integrators. In all of the numerical examples presented in Sec-
 197 tion 5, the time-dependent term $\int_e \partial_t U \phi$ will be evaluated using the second-order
 198 temporal integrator BDF2. By considering three converged solutions, U^{n-1} , U^n
 199 and U^{n+1} at three different time t^{n-1} , t^n and t^{n+1} , respectively, it yields:

$$\int_e \partial_t U \phi = \omega_0 U^{n+1} + \omega_1 U^n + \omega_2 U^{n-1} \quad (13)$$

with $\omega_0 =$, $\omega_1 =$ and $\omega_2 =$

200 4.2. Boundary conditions

201 The boundary conditions will be treated by either using Dirichlet or Neu-
 202 mann conditions. The multi-D Euler equations are wave-dominated systems
 203 that require great care when dealing with boundary conditions. It is often rec-
 204 ommended to use the characteristic equations to compute the correct flux at
 205 the boundaries. Our implementation of the boundary conditions will follow the
 206 method described in [?] that was developed for Ideal Gas and Stiffened Gas
 207 equation of states. For each numerical solution presented in Section 5, the type
 208 of boundary conditions used will be specified.

209 4.3. Solver

210 A Free-Jacobian-Newton-Krylov (FJNK) method is used to solve for the
 211 solution at each time step.

212 **5. Numerical Results**

213 ideas

214 1. Nozzle fluid

215 2. Nozze gas

216 3. Leblanc

217 4. Gaussian hump

218 5. Cylinder

219 **6. Conclusions**

220 **Acknowledgments**