

Modeling and mathematical analysis of complex systems: Kinetic and macroscopic approaches and applications in biology and vehicular traffic

Mohamed Zagour

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Abstract

High School of Technology of Essaouira

Doctor of Philosophy in applied mathematics

Modeling and mathematical analysis of complex systems: Kinetic and macroscopic approaches and applications in biology and vehicular traffic

by Mohamed Zagour

This thesis deals with modeling and mathematical analysis of complex systems on the basis of kinetic and macroscopic approaches. The ultimate aims are to propose and to study a new kinetic and macroscopic-fluid models. Moreover, we show the possibility of passing from kinetic to macroscopic regimes. Specifically, we are concerned with the modeling and the mathematical analysis of the biological interacting populations living in a complex fluid medium in the first place. For this, we propose two new crossdiffusion-fluid systems. Next, we derive these systems from a new kinetic-fluid models by adopting micro-macro decomposition method. In the second place, we are interested to the modeling and mathematical analysis of vehicular traffic according to a kinetic theory for active particles approach. We propose a general mathematical structure which includes the features of the complex system under consideration and which appears to be the most important aspects of the dynamics to be retained by the modeling approach. Namely heterogeneity of the driver-vehicle subsystem, aggregation dynamics for vehicles with closed each other velocity, passing probability, variable properties of the roadenvironment where the dynamics occur and role of the external actions. To cut it short, each field of application contains three main parts:

• **Part of modeling and derivation:** In the first application, we propose a suitable kineticfluid models describing the evolution of the competing populations living in a complex fluid medium. We derive our proposed cross-diffusion-fluid systems from these models by using micro-macro decomposition method. In the second application, we propose a general mathematical kinetic structure accounting for all different possible type of interactions. Modeling each appeared terms in these mathematical structures leads to a derived models which permit to obtained macroscopic quantities such as the density, the flux and the mean velocity.

• **Part of mathematical analysis:** This part is devoted to prove the existence of weak solutions of the cross-diffusion-fluid systems by using Schauder fixed-point method for the first proposed system and nonlinear Galerkin method for the second proposed system.

• **Part of computational analysis:** Here, we adopt a suitable numerical methods and we present different simulations toward the validation of our proposed models and methods.

Keywords: Kinetic-fluid derivation, cross-diffusion, Brinkman equations, Navier-Stokes systems, micro-macro decomposition, asymptotic preserving scheme, Schauder's fixed-point, nonlinear Galerkin method, finite volume method, finite element method, vehicular traffic, kinetic theory for active particles, games theory, local and mean field interactions.

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I also thank my friends for their presence and support during these years of hard work. Thanks to Mohamed Ben Marzoug, Mohamed El Guide, Brahim Rafik, Khadija Sadik and Lamia Ziad. Thanks to PhD students: Omar, Elmahdi, Sanae, Farah, Ahmed, Hassan, Hanane, Sara... and everyone else.

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Chapter 1

General Introduction

"Mathematical modeling is the art of translating problems from an application area into tractable mathematical formulations whose theoretical and numerical analysis provides insight answers and guidance useful for the originating application "¹. Thus, in the last few decades modeling of complex systems has been the subject of many investigations leading to an increasing number of research scientific papers. Furthermore, a wide set of possible applications, such as cross-diffusion systems, vehicular traffic and others, has directed the attention of mathematicians towards research domains usually populated by engineers, biologists or researchers with other expertise. Bearing these facts in mind, this thesis attempts to propose a new kinetic and macroscopic models leading to a much more better explanations and realistic results for the interacting populations living in complex flow and vehicular traffic applications.

1.1 Introduction to the complex system in biology

During the last few decades, cross-diffusion systems have attracted a growth intention of mathematicians and biologists. Mainly for their ability to predict some interesting features in the studied field, for instance population dynamic in ecology. In mathematical biology applications, cross diffusion systems arise to model segregation phenomena between competing species. In real life, we observe that prey (for e.g. phytoplankton) has the tendency to keep away from predator (for e.g. zooplankton) at the same time predator has the tendency to get closer to the prey, see Figure 1.1-(a) and the following references [77, 84, 59] for more details. We observe also that many species live in complex flow so that species are transported in direction of the flow. Conversely, the velocity of the flow is under the influence of external forces including the density of species,see Figure 1.1-(b). Thus, it is interesting to study the dynamic of the interacting species on the basis of the coupled cross-diffusion-fluid model. In this thesis, we propose two new models: a non-linear cross-diffusion system coupled with augmented Brinkman problem and nonlocal cross-diffusion system for multi-populations coupled within the incompressible Navier-Stokes. More in details, we deals with three main parts to study the aforesaid models:

• **kinetic-fluid derivation:** This first part aims to derive a general macroscopic models from kinetic-fluid equations. We start by presenting the kinetic-fluid models with a suitable scaling and their properties. Next, we perform the micro-macro decomposition method to obtain the equivalent formulation to the kinetic-fluid equations. Finally, we derive a general macroscopic models from the equivalent micro-macro formulation. Then by the suitable choices of different operators, we get the purpose cross-diffusion-fluid models.

• **Mathematical analysis:** This part deals with the proof of existence of weak solutions to the derived models. For the nonlinear cross-diffusion model coupled with Brinkman

¹Prof. Dr. Arnold Neumaier, Fakultät für Mathematik, Universität Wien



FIGURE 1.1: Food chain of land (a) and sea (b) species.²

problem, we use Schauder fixed-point. For the nonlocal cross-diffusion system for multipopulations coupled within the incompressible Navier-Stokes, we use the nonlinear Galerkin method.

• **Computational analysis:** Here, we deal with the discrete asymptotic preserving scheme. Indeed, we propose a numerical scheme uniformly stable along the transition from kinetic to macroscopic regimes (thus their computational complexity does not depend on the Knudsen parameter which models the distance between species). On the other hand, we show various numerical results which reflect some biological phenomena. For instance, interactions between preys and predators, fluid effect on the interacting species and external forces effects on the fluid dynamic and on the interacting species...



FIGURE 1.2: Illustration of asymptotic preserving schemes.

We mention that this thesis deals with the asymptotic preserving (AP) schemes. The idea of AP can be illustrated in Figure 1.2. Assume we start with a multi-scale kinetic model $\mathcal{P}^{\varepsilon}$ depending on Knudsen parameter ε . As Knudsen parameter tends to zero the model is approximated by a macroscopic model \mathcal{P}^0 which is independent of ε . Denote by $\mathcal{P}_h^{\varepsilon}$ the numerical discretization of $\mathcal{P}^{\varepsilon}$, where $h = (\Delta t, \Delta x, \Delta v)$ is the numerical parameter such as mesh size and or time step. The asymptotic limit of $\mathcal{P}_h^{\varepsilon}$, as ε tends to zeros with *h* fixed, if exists, is denoted by \mathcal{P}_h^0 . The scheme $\mathcal{P}_h^{\varepsilon}$ is called AP if \mathcal{P}_h^0 is a good (consistent and stable) approximation of \mathcal{P}^0 . In this thesis, we adopt micro-macro decomposition method. The idea of this technique is to write the unknown distribution function as a sum of an equilibrium and a deviation. It permits to reformulate the singularly perturbed kinetic system into an equivalent micro-macro formulation which is

²Source: (a) www.pltwa.com/uploads/2/7/8/2/27828107/food_webs_activity_plan.pdf (b) Encyclopidia Britanica, Inc.

a regular perturbation of the derivative model. Thus, solving numerically the equivalent micro-macro formulation instead of the perturbed kinetic system will permit to shift automatically the limit problem, if the perturbation parameter ε is too small.

1.2 Introduction to the complex system in vehicular traffic

Nowadays, prediction and control of traffic attracts the intention of mathematicians researchers and engineers. With the increasing number of vehicles, the urban traffic system faces many problems, like, e.g., cities congestion and environmental pollution, see Figure 1.4. Indeed, traffic congestion induces not only long wasted time lost by users but also additional pollution of various kinds. In fact, it generates both an economic cost and environmental damage. An additional problem worth mentioning is the need to reduce car crashes, a human and social cost that is related not only to inadequate driving, but also to the planning of the flow conditions.

We believe that mathematical models can help to understand the dynamics of the traffic and give insight into questions like-what causes congestion, what determines the time and location of traffic break down, how does a congestion propagate. Thus, the aims of applied mathematicians and engineers has been to develop traffic models in order to predict the evolution of traffic flow. This in turn helps in answering how to handle urgent traffic issues and supports strategies of organizing traffic flow. Moreover, the organized traffic may reduce the travel time due to an optimized traffic distribution.

The existing literature of traffic flow is vast and characterized by various contributions taking into account modeling aspects, qualitative analysis of the existing models and simulations related to applications. Various types of models of traffic vehicular differing on the level of description can be found in the literature, see the reviews [18, 17, 66, 57]. The mathematical approach can be developed at the three observation and representation scales, namely microscopic, macroscopic, and statistical over the microscopic state, see Figure 1.3. Different mathematical structures correspond to each type of representation:



FIGURE 1.3: The three observation scales.

• **Microscopic models** focus on the behavior of individual vehicles, and study how one vehicle dynamically interacts with another. These models attempt to describe the overall characteristics of the system by integrating the characteristic of each individual vehicle. Mathematical models at the microscopic scale have a structure analogous to that of Newtonian dynamics. The model describes the acceleration of vehicles as the output of the action of surrounding vehicles. Microscopic models have three categories: car-following models, cellular automata models and sub-microscopic models. Car-following models analyze the vehicle following behavior in one lane. Cellular automata models view individual vehicles as self-driven particles, which is a collection of particles respond to a random perturbation by the motion of the other nearby particles. Sub-microscopic models describe more details, such as driver's psychological reactions, response to the traffic



FIGURE 1.4: Vehicular traffic congestion in Casablanca city, Morocco.³

and car lights, etc.

• Macroscopic models mainly describe the spatio-temporal association rules of the traffic flow features, including traffic flow rate, velocity and density. The theoretical basis of dynamic macroscopic models is the fluid dynamics model, which is also known as the continuum model of traffic flow. Equations in fluid dynamics are a set of partial differential equations known as the Euler equations, expressing the conservation of mass, momentum and energy. The basic idea is to look at large scales so to consider cars as small particles and their density as the main quantity to be considered. They are especially used in the modeling framework of the large networks. Their current applications cover the traffic simulation for planning and infrastructure design.

• **Kinetic models** named also mesoscopic or statistical models present an intermediate step between the above two approach of model, they specific vehicle behavior in probabilistic terms. Thus, traffic is represented by small groups of vehicle for which the activities and interactions are described at a low level of detail. Mesoscopic models consist in the derivation of a Boltzmann type evolution equation for the statistical distribution function on the position and velocity of vehicles within a framework close to that of gaskinetic theory. More details about kinetic models in next Chapter **3**.

Thereafter, we focus on the kinetic approach due to its several advantages versus microscopic and macroscopic models. Indeed, kinetic theory is able to capture the complexity problems of vehicular traffic like the assumption of continuity of the distribution function and the assumption of homogeneity of the behavior of the driver, which have been criticized by [40]. Moreover, on the one hand they can be more fundamentally justified than the standard macroscopic models, leading to a better justification of the macroscopic models and potentially to more accurate results. On the other hand, compared to microscopic models, kinetic theory requires a lower number of equations, which makes them more accessible by computational and mathematical analysis.

It is worth stating three key aspects of the complexity of vehicular traffic flow that models should cope with.

• **Ability to express strategy**. Systems driver-vehicle have a *self-organization* abilities affected by the state of surrounding environment. The individual behavior of the driver-vehicle is heterogeneously distributed among vehicles.

³Source: (a) www.actu-maroc.com/embouteillages-attendus-pour-les-departs-en-vacances (b) www.aujourdhui.ma/societe/circulation-et-stationnement-dans-les-grandes-villes • **Interactions and multiscale effects**. Interactions among vehicles are microscopic interactions. Probably the most striking effect of these interactions is the spontaneous emergence of self-organized flow patterns, that can be clearly seen at larger scales. The influence of smaller on larger scales can be viewed as *micro-to-macro* scaling. The opposite influence is possible. This induces *outer-to-inner* multiscale couplings, which make vehicles interactions nonlinearly additive.

• Large deviations and loss of determinism. The expression of the strategic ability and the characteristics of the interactions among vehicles described above can be considered under either a *deterministic* or a *stochastic* perspective. The former is appropriate in normal conditions, when a standard rational attitude can be identified, over which large deviations are not expected. Conversely, the latter is particularly suited for addressing cases in which irrational behaviors cannot be excluded, which might induce large deviations.

1.3 Organization of the report

System 1

The thesis is organized in two main parts: Each part contains two chapters and each chapter will be introduced by a short motivational section.

First part: This part deals with the biological interacting populations application.

Chapter 2. We summarize the results published in the paper [24]. As it mentioned above, several competing species are living in a complex fluid medium. Thus, it is so important to model this real observation. This is in fact the main objective in [24], where we propose and we study a new nonlinear model describing dynamical interaction of two species within viscous flow. Our proposed model is a nonlinear cross-diffusion system coupled with Brinkman problem written in terms of velocity fluid *u*, vorticity ω , pressure *p*, and describing the flow patterns driven by an external source depending on the densities of species *c* and *s*. Our proposed system is as follows

	$c_t + u \cdot \nabla c - \operatorname{div} \left[\left(D_c(c) + 2 a_{11} c + a_{12} s \right) \nabla c + a_{12} c \nabla s \right] = H_c(c, s),$	in Ω_T ,
	$s_t + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla s - \operatorname{div} \left[\left(D_s(s) + a_{21}c + 2a_{22}s \right) \nabla s + a_{21}s \nabla c \right] = H_s(c,s),$	in Ω_T ,
	$\mathbb{K}^{-1}\boldsymbol{u} + \sqrt{\mu}\operatorname{\mathbf{curl}} \boldsymbol{\omega} + \nabla p = Q(c,s)\boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F},$	in Ω_T ,
	$\omega - \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} u = 0,$	in Ω_T ,
{	$\operatorname{div} \boldsymbol{u} = \boldsymbol{0},$	in Ω_T ,
	$\left(c\boldsymbol{u}-(D_c(c)+2a_{11}c+a_{12}s)\nabla c-a_{12}c\nabla s\right)\cdot\eta=0,$	on $\partial \Omega_T$,
	$\left(s\boldsymbol{u} - (D_s(s) + a_{21}c + 2a_{22}s)\nabla s - a_{21}s\nabla c\right) \cdot \eta = 0,$	on $\partial \Omega_T$,
	$\boldsymbol{u}\cdot\boldsymbol{\eta}=\boldsymbol{u}_{\partial},\ \boldsymbol{\omega}\times\boldsymbol{\eta}=\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\partial},$	on $\partial \Omega_T$,
	$c(t = 0, x) = c_0(x), s(t = 0, x) = s_0(x),$	in Ω,

where $D_c(c)$, $D_s(s)$ are the nonlinear diffusitive functions and $a_{ij} > 0$ for i, j = 1, 2 is known as self and cross-diffusion rates. The parameter μ is the fluid viscosity in the considered regime, it is assumed independent of the densities of species c and s, $\mathbb{K}(x)$ is the permeability tensor rescaled with viscosity, Q(c, s)g represents the force exerted by the densities on the fluid motion, and $\mathbf{F}(t, x)$ is an external force applied to the porous medium. The functions H_c and H_s are the reaction terms. A typical example of H_c and H_s is given by Lotka-Voltera (logistic) type growth term. In the first part, we derive a macroscopic models from the following kinetic-fluid equations by using the micro-macro decomposition method:

$$Model 1 \begin{cases} \left(\varepsilon\partial_t + \xi \cdot \nabla_x\right) f_1^{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{T}_1[f_2^{\varepsilon}](f_1^{\varepsilon}) + G_1(f_1^{\varepsilon}, f_2^{\varepsilon}, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi), \\ \left(\varepsilon\partial_t + \xi \cdot \nabla_x\right) f_2^{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{T}_2[f_1^{\varepsilon}](f_2^{\varepsilon}) + G_2(f_1^{\varepsilon}, f_2^{\varepsilon}, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi), \\ \mathbb{K}^{-1}\boldsymbol{u} + \sqrt{\mu}\operatorname{curl}\boldsymbol{\omega} + \nabla p = Q\left(\int_V f_1^{\varepsilon} d\xi, \int_V f_2^{\varepsilon} d\xi\right) \boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F} \\ \boldsymbol{\omega} - \sqrt{\mu}\operatorname{curl}\boldsymbol{u} = \mathbf{0}, \\ \operatorname{div}\boldsymbol{u} = 0, \end{cases}$$

where f_1 , f_2 are the generalized distribution functions which depend on time t, position $x \in \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ and velocity $\xi \in V \subset \mathbb{R}^d$. The Knudsen parameter ε measures the distance of the system to its equilibrium. Specifically, when ε is small, the system is close to an equilibrium state, while for large ε , the system is far from equilibrium. Moreover, $\mathcal{T}_1[f_2]$, $\mathcal{T}_2[f_1]$ and G_i , i = 1, 2 are, respectively, the turning and interaction operators. Comparing to the work by [11], the novelty in our work is that we derive the cross-diffusion system with nonlinear diffusitive functions instead of a diffusion with constants. Moreover, our system is coupled to the augmented Brinkman problem.

On the basis of Schauder fixed-point theory, we prove the existence of weak solutions for the derived model in the second part. The last part is devoted to develop a one dimensional finite volume approximation for the kinetic-fluid model, which are uniformly stable along the transition from kinetic to macroscopic regimes. Our computation method is validated with various numerical tests.

Chapter ??. We summarize the results in our paper [7]. Motivated by our work in [24], here we propose and we study a generalized system. Our proposed system is contains a nonlocal diffusion and a nonlinear cross-diffusion describing the dynamic of interacting multi-populations living in a complex medium governed with the incompressible Navier-Stokes equation (non-stationary fluid flow). Our proposed system is written as follows

$$\partial_t u_i + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla_x u_i - \operatorname{div}_x \left(d_{u_i} \left(\int_{\Omega} u_i dx \right) \nabla_x u_i + \sum_{j=1}^n \mathcal{A}_i^j (u_1, ..., u_n) \nabla_x u_j \right) = F_i, \quad \text{in } \Omega_T,$$

$$\partial_t \mathbf{v} - \nu \Delta \mathbf{v} + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla_x) \mathbf{v} + \nabla_x p + Q(u_1, ..., u_n) \nabla_x \phi = \mathbf{0}, \quad \text{in } \Omega_T,$$

System 2 {

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \text{ and } \left(d_{u_i} \left(\int_{\Omega} u_i dx \right) \nabla_x u_i + \sum_{j=1}^n \mathcal{A}_i^j (u_1, ..., u_n) \nabla_x u_j \right) \cdot \eta = 0, \qquad \text{ on } \partial \Omega_T,$$

$$u_i(t=0,x) = u_{i,0}(x), \ \mathbf{v}(t=0,x) = \mathbf{v}_0(x),$$
 in Ω ,

for i = 1, ..., n. u_i is the density of i - th population, d_{u_i} is the nonlocal diffusivitie functions assumed to be depend on the whole of each population in the domain rather than on the local density, \mathcal{A}_i^j (i, j = 1, ..., n) is the nonlinear cross-diffusion matrix elements, **v** is the fluid velocity, p is the fluid pressure, v is the fluid viscosity, $Q(u_1, ..., u_n) \nabla \phi$ represents the external force applied to the incompressible fluid and n is the unit outward normal to Ω on $\partial \Omega$. Finally, F_i is the reaction terms for i = 1, ..., n. The first part of this chapter is devoted to the derivation of the proposed system from the following nonlocal kinetic-fluid model

$$Model 2 \begin{cases} \varepsilon \partial_t f_i^{\varepsilon} + \xi \cdot \nabla_x \mathcal{F}_i(f_i^{\varepsilon}) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{T}_i[f_1^{\varepsilon}, ..., f_{i-1}^{\varepsilon}, f_{i+1}^{\varepsilon}, ..., f_n^{\varepsilon}](f_i) + G_i(f_1^{\varepsilon}, ..., f_n^{\varepsilon}, \xi, \mathbf{v}), \\ \partial_t \mathbf{v} - \nu \Delta_x \mathbf{v} + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla_x) \mathbf{v} + \nabla_x p + Q(\int_V f_1^{\varepsilon} d\xi, ..., \int_V f_n^{\varepsilon} d\xi) \nabla_x \phi = \mathbf{0}, \text{ div }_x \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}, \\ f_i^{\varepsilon}(t = 0, x, \xi) = f_{i,0}^{\varepsilon}(x, \xi), \quad \mathbf{v}(t = 0, x) = \mathbf{v}_0(x). \end{cases}$$

The derivation is based on micro-macro decomposition method which leads to an equivalent system coupled the microscopic and macroscopic equations. Comparing with [24], here we deal with the derivation from a nonlocal kinetic-fluid model for multi-interacting populations living in a fluid generated by the incompressible Navier-Stokes equations.

In the second part, we prove the existence of weak solutions of the proposed nonlocal cross-diffusion-fluid system. The proof is based on the nonlinear Galerkin method, a priori estimates and compactness arguments. We develop numerical approximations for the equivalent model of the kinetic-fluid system and for the macroscopic model in the next part in order to show the asymptotic preserving scheme property. In other words, when the distance between species (mean free path) is too small, the profiles of the densities given by the two schemes (micro-macro and macroscopic schemes) are almost the same. On the other hand, we reproduce some numerical results of phenomena taking into account the effects of non-locality of diffusivity functions and of the fluid. The last part is devoted to the computational analysis of the nonlocal cross-diffusion-fluid model in two dimension.

Second part: This part is devoted to vehicular traffic flow application.

Chapter 3. We begin with a detailed review of the main vehicular traffic kinetic models available in the pertinent literature.

Chapter ??. We summarize the results proposed in the paper [28]. We propose and we study a new general mathematical structure for vehicular traffic according to a kinetic theory approach. The mathematical structure proposed in this work includes the features of the complex system under consideration which, according to the authors' opinion, appear to be the most important aspects of the dynamics to be retained by the modeling approach. Namely heterogeneity of the driver-vehicle subsystem, aggregation dynamics for vehicles with closed each other velocity, passing probability, variable properties of the road-environment where the dynamics occur and role of the external actions. Our proposed model is as follows

$$\begin{split} \partial_t f(t, x, v, u) &+ v \partial_x f(t, x, v, u) + \partial_v (\mathcal{F}[f](t, x, v, u) f(t, x, v, u)) \\ &= \int_{[0,1]^3} \eta[f] \mathcal{A}[f; \alpha](v_* \to v | v_*, v^*, u) f(t, x, v_*, u) f(t, x, v^*, u^*) dv_* dv^* du^* \\ &- f(t, x, v, u) \int_{[0,1]^2} \eta[f] f(t, x, v^*, u^*) dv^* du^* \\ &+ \mu[f] \big(f_e(x, v_e(x)) - f(t, x, v, u) \big), \end{split}$$

where x and v are the dimensionless position and velocity variables, and u is a variable which denotes the quality of the micro-system. f is the distribution function over the

state at the microscopic scale. The remained terms in the above model are

- *F*[*f*] is the overall acceleration of all vehicles which obtained by integration corresponding to the action of all vehicles in the sensitive zone Ω_ℓ.
- η[f] is the encounter rate which models the number of interactions per unit time between candidate and test particles with field particles;
- *A*[*f*](*v*_{*} → *v*|*u*) is the transition probability density which defines the probability density that a candidate particle falls into the state of with the field particles;
- $\mu[f]$ models the intensity of the action while $v_e(x)$ is the speed imposed by the external action.

We model the interactions at the microscopic scale by methods of game theory, thus leading to the derivation of mathematical models within the framework of the kinetic theory. Short and long range interactions are modeled to depict change of velocity related to passing and clustering phenomena. Numerical results are provided to compute the fundamental diagrams predicted by the spatially homogeneous problem and emerging of two clusters predicted by the spatially inhomogeneous problem.

Part I

Kinetic-fluid derivation and mathematical analysis of cross-diffusion-fluid models

Chapter 2

Kinetic-fluid derivation and mathematical analysis of cross-diffusion-Brinkman system

This chapter aims to summarize our work [24] in which we propose a new nonlinear system describing dynamical interaction of two species within viscous flow. The proposed system is a cross-diffusion system coupled with Brinkman problem written in terms of velocity fluid, vorticity and pressure, and describing the flow patterns driven by an external source depending on the distribution of species. In the first part, we derive a macroscopic systems from the kinetic-fluid equations by using the micro-macro decomposition method. Basing on Schauder fixed-point theory, we prove the existence of weak solutions for the derived system in the second part. The last part is devoted to develop a one dimensional finite volume approximation for the kinetic-fluid model, which are uniformly stable along the transition from kinetic to macroscopic regimes. Our computation method is validated with various numerical tests.

2.1 Introduction

In this paper [24], we are interested to the viscous flow in porous medium which is always modelled by Brinkman equations stating momentum and the conservation of mass of the fluid. We note that Brinkman problem is a parameter dependent combination of Darcy and Stokes models, so that the flow is dominated by Darcy regime and by Stokes elsewhere. Motivated by this phenomena, we propose a nonlinear cross-diffusion system include additional terms accounting for the advection of each species with the fluid velocity, coupled with Brinkman problem written in terms of fluid velocity, vorticity and pressure, and describing the flow patterns driven by an external source depending on the distribution of species.

In order to state our problem, let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ be a simply connected, and bounded porous domain saturated with a Newtonian incompressible fluid, where also the two species are present. The physical scenario of interest can be therefore described by a coupled system written in terms of the fluid velocity u, the rescaled fluid vorticity ω , the fluid pressure p, and the densities of two species c and s. The cross-diffusion-Brinkman system can be written for (t, x) in $\Omega_T := (0, T) \times \Omega$:

$$\begin{cases} c_t + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla_x c - \Delta_x \left[\left(D_c(c) + a_{11} c + a_{12} s \right) c \right] = H_c(c, s), \\ s_t + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla_x s - \Delta_x \left[\left(D_s(s) + a_{21} c + a_{22} s \right) s \right] = H_s(c, s), \\ \mathbb{K}^{-1} \boldsymbol{u} + \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{\omega} + \nabla_x p = Q(c, s) \boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F}, \\ \boldsymbol{\omega} - \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{u} = \mathbf{0}, \\ \operatorname{div} \boldsymbol{u} = 0, \end{cases}$$
(2.1.1)

where $D_c(c)$, $D_s(s)$ are the nonlinear diffusitive functions and $a_{ij} > 0$ for i, j = 1, 2 is known as self and cross-diffusion rates. The parameter μ is the fluid viscosity in the considered regime, it is assumed independent of the densities of species c and s, $\mathbb{K}(x)$ is the permeability tensor rescaled with viscosity, Q(c, s)g represents the force exerted by the densities on the fluid motion, and $\mathbf{F}(t, x)$ is an external force applied to the porous medium. The functions H_c and H_s are the reaction terms. A typical example of H_c and H_s is given by Lotka-Voltera (logistic) type growth term:

$$\begin{cases} H_c(c, s) = c(a_1 - b_1 c - d_1 s), \\ H_s(c, s) = s(a_2 - b_2 c - d_2 s), \end{cases}$$
(2.1.2)

where a_1 and a_2 are the Malthusian growth coefficients, and b_1 , d_2 and b_2 , d_1 are the coefficients of intra- and inter-species competition, respectively. Note that our system reads for suitably smooth functions *c* and *s* as follows

$$\begin{cases} c_t + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla_x c - \operatorname{div}_x \left[\left(D_c(c) + 2 a_{11} c + a_{12} s \right) \nabla c + a_{12} c \nabla_x s \right] = H_c(c,s), & \text{in } \Omega_T, \\ s_t + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla_x s - \operatorname{div}_x \left[\left(D_s(s) + a_{21} c + 2 a_{22} s \right) \nabla s + a_{21} s \nabla_x c \right] = H_s(c,s), & \text{in } \Omega_T, \\ \mathbb{K}^{-1} \boldsymbol{u} + \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{\omega} + \nabla_x p = Q(c,s) \boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F}, & \text{in } \Omega_T, \\ \boldsymbol{\omega} - \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{u} = \mathbf{0}, & \text{in } \Omega_T, \\ \operatorname{div} \boldsymbol{u} = 0, & \text{in } \Omega_T. \end{cases}$$

Our system (2.1.3) is complemented with the following boundary conditions in $\Sigma_T := (0, T) \times \partial \Omega$ and initial data:

$$\begin{aligned} & (cu - (D_c(c) + 2a_{11}c + a_{12}s)\nabla_x c - a_{12}c\nabla_x s) \cdot \eta = 0, \quad (t,x) \in \Sigma_T, \\ & (su - (D_s(s) + a_{21}c + 2a_{22}s)\nabla_x s - a_{21}s\nabla_x c) \cdot \eta = 0, \quad (t,x) \in \Sigma_T, \\ & u \cdot \eta = u_\partial, \ \omega \times \eta = \omega_\partial, \quad (t,x) \in \Sigma_T, \\ & c(t = 0, x) = c_0(x), \quad s(t = 0, x) = s_0(x), \quad x \in \Omega, \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.1.4)$$

where η is the unit outward normal to Ω on $\partial\Omega$. Note that in the case $(a_{i,j})_{1 \le i,j \le 2} :=$ 0, our system can be reduced to the recent system by [2], in which the authors proposed reaction-diffusion system representing the bacteria-chemical mass exchange, coupled with Brinkman problem.

To the best of our knowledge, there are few papers proposing the augmented velocityvorticity-pressure formulation (augmented Brinkman model) without reaction-diffusion system coupling. It was initially proposed in [89], where the authors added vorticity as a new unknown variable. In [1, 5], the authors proposed the analysis of this system using mixed finite element method for standard and non-standard boundary conditions, respectively. Later, in [72], the authors have studied numerically an advection-diffusionreaction system coupled with an incompressible viscous flow. When the fluid is at rest (u = 0), several works have been proposed in the literature to investigate the theoretical and numerical analysis of the cross-diffusion system. For instance, the works in [23, 92] include the analysis of the weak solution and the global existence of solution. Moreover, the authors in [87] specified the conditions for the existence of unstable equilibrium points. On the other hand, many numerical methods are proposed to approximate the solution. We refer the reader to finite difference method in [33], finite element method in [9], deterministic particle method in [49], finite volume method in [6, 3, 4] and positivitypreserving Euler-Galerkin method in [34]. We want to mention here that this is the first attempt to derive macroscopic system with nonlinear diffusitive terms. Moreover, in our contribution we present a new system (Cross-diffusion-Brinkman system) that combine interaction of the species in the presence of fluid.

In this chapter, we derive a general cross-diffusion systems coupled with the Brinkman problem from the kinetic-fluid using micro-macro decomposition method. In particular, we are interesting to derive our cross-diffusion-Brinkman system (??). The idea of micro-macro decomposition is to write the unknown distribution function as a sum of an equilibrium and a deviation. We note that this method permits to reformulate the singularly perturbed kinetic system into an equivalent micro-macro formulation which is a regular perturbation of the derivative system. Thus, solving numerically the equivalent micro-macro formulation instead of the perturbed kinetic system will permit to shift automatically the limit problem, if the perturbation parameter (Knudsen parameter or sometimes it refers as mean free path) is too small. Several contributions have investigated the asymptotic limit in the following cases: diffusion limit in [71, 26, 22], anomalous diffusion limit in [39, 35], hyperbolic system in [78] and Keller-Segel systems of pattern formation in biological tissues in [11, 16, 27]. Note that there are different approaches to construct such scheme for kinetic systems in various contexts. For instance, the authors in [13, 14] developed the approach of continuum mechanics based on micro-macro derivation in biological tissue and [20] for incompressible Navier-Stokes, (see the interesting overview [8] for more details). Another approach can be found in [52, 65], where the authors used the domain decomposition method for the linear transport equation.

The outline of this Chapter is the following: In Section 2.2, we present the kinetic model and its properties. Next, we perform the micro-macro formulation, which is the ingredient key in the construction of our numerical method. Section 2.3 is devoted to proving the existence of weak solutions for derived macroscopic system. Our numerical method is demonstrated in Section 2.4 with various numerical tests.

2.2 Derivation of cross-diffusion-Brinkman systems

This section aims to derive general macroscopic systems using micro-macro decomposition method following the line of the paper [11]. Note that the authors in this paper have derived a macroscopic systems of Keller-Segel type, which describe the chemotaxis phenomenon [62]. First, we present the properties of the kinetic system which lead to an equivalent micro-macro formulation. Next, we derive formally a general macroscopic nonlinear coupled system. We finish this subsection by deriving our cross-diffusion-Brinkman system (2.1.3). We want to mention here that the novelty in this first part is that we derive the cross-diffusion system with nonlinear diffusitive functions coupled with Brinkman problem.

2.2.1 The kinetic-fluid model

In order to derive a general macroscopic cross-diffusion-Brinkman system from the kineticfluid model, we consider the parabolic-parabolic scaling. Thus, the kinetic-fluid model is as follows

$$(\varepsilon\partial_t + \xi \cdot \nabla_x) f_1^{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{T}_1[f_2^{\varepsilon}](f_1^{\varepsilon}) + G_1(f_1^{\varepsilon}, f_2^{\varepsilon}, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi), (\varepsilon\partial_t + \xi \cdot \nabla_x) f_2^{\varepsilon} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{T}_2[f_1^{\varepsilon}](f_2^{\varepsilon}) + G_2(f_1^{\varepsilon}, f_2^{\varepsilon}, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi), \mathbb{K}^{-1}\boldsymbol{u} + \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{\omega} + \nabla_x \boldsymbol{p} = Q\Big(\int_V f_1^{\varepsilon} d\xi, \int_V f_2^{\varepsilon} d\xi\Big) \boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F}, \boldsymbol{\omega} - \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{u} = \mathbf{0}, \operatorname{div} \boldsymbol{u} = \mathbf{0},$$

$$(2.2.1)$$

where f_1 , f_2 are the generalized distribution functions which depend on time t, position $x \in \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ and velocity $\xi \in V \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ (V assumed to be bounded and symmetric). The remaining macroscopic variables and parameters, namely u, μ , ω , p, Q, g, and \mathbf{F} , are defined in the introduction. The Knudsen parameter ε measures the distance of the system to its equilibrium. Specifically, when ε is small, the system is close to an equilibrium state, while for large ε , the system is far from equilibrium. Moreover, $\mathcal{T}_1[f_2]$, $\mathcal{T}_2[f_1]$ and G_i , i = 1, 2 are, respectively, the turning and interaction operators, assumed to satisfy the following properties:

• The turning operators are decomposed as follows

$$\mathcal{T}_1[f_2](h) = \mathcal{T}_1^1(h) + \varepsilon \mathcal{T}_1^2[f_2](h), \quad \mathcal{T}_2[f_1](h) = \mathcal{T}_1^2(h) + \varepsilon \mathcal{T}_2^2[f_1](h), \quad (2.2.2)$$

where \mathcal{T}_{j}^{i} for i, j = 1, 2 are given by

$$\mathcal{T}_{j}^{i}(h) = \int_{V} \left[T_{j}^{i}(\xi^{*},\xi)h(t,x,\xi^{*}) - T_{j}^{i}(\xi,\xi^{*})h(t,x,\xi) \right] d\xi^{*}, \qquad (2.2.3)$$

where $T_j^i(\xi, \xi^*)$ is the probability kernel for the new velocity $\xi \in V$, given that the previous velocity was ξ^* . The dependence on f_2 (resp. f_1) of the operator $\mathcal{T}_1^2[f_2]$ (resp. $\mathcal{T}_2^2[f_1]$) stems from T_2^1 (resp. T_2^2). We assume that \mathcal{T}_1^1 is independent on f_2 and \mathcal{T}_2^1 is independent on f_1 . In what follows, we shall consider $\mathcal{T}_1^1(h) = \mathcal{L}_1(h)$ and $\mathcal{T}_2^1(h) = \mathcal{L}_2(h)$.

• We assume that

$$\int_{V} \mathcal{L}_{1}(h) d\xi = \int_{V} \mathcal{T}_{1}^{2}[f_{2}](h) d\xi = \int_{V} \mathcal{L}_{2}(h) d\xi = \int_{V} \mathcal{T}_{2}^{2}[f_{1}](h) d\xi = 0.$$
(2.2.4)

There exists a bounded velocity distribution M_i(ξ) > 0, (i = 1, 2) independent of t and x, such that

$$T_1^1(\xi,\xi^*)M_1(\xi^*) = T_1^1(\xi^*,\xi)M_1(\xi), \quad T_2^1(\xi,\xi^*)M_2(\xi^*) = T_2^1(\xi^*,\xi)M_2(\xi) \quad (2.2.5)$$

holds. Furthermore, M_i are normalized and the flow produced by these equilibrium distributions vanishes

$$\int_{V} M_{i}(\xi) d\xi = 1, \quad \int_{V} \xi M_{i}(\xi) d\xi = 0, \quad i = 1, 2.$$
(2.2.6)

The probability kernels $T_1^1(\xi, \xi^*)$ and $T_2^1(\xi, \xi^*)$ are bounded, and there exist constants $\sigma_i > 0$, i = 1, 2, such that

$$T_1^1(\xi,\xi^*) \ge \sigma_1 M_1(\xi), \quad T_2^1(\xi,\xi^*) \ge \sigma_2 M_2(\xi),$$
 (2.2.7)

for all $(\xi, \xi^*) \in V \times V$.

• Moreover, we assume that the interaction operators *G_i* (*i* = 1, 2) satisfy the following properties:

$$G_i(f_1, f_2, \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = G_{i1}(f_1, f_2, \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) + \varepsilon G_{i2}(f_1, f_2, \boldsymbol{\xi}), \qquad (2.2.8)$$

where

$$\int_{V} G_{i1}(f_1, f_2, \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) d\boldsymbol{\xi} = 0, \qquad (2.2.9)$$

for i = 1, 2.

Thanks to technical calculations in [30], the operators \mathcal{L}_i (i = 1, 2) have the following properties (the proof of the following lemma can be found in [11]):

Lemma 2.2.1 Assume that the hypothesis (??), (??) and (??) hold. Then, the following properties of the operators \mathcal{L}_1 and \mathcal{L}_2 hold true:

- 1) The operator \mathcal{L}_i is self-adjoint in the space $L^2\left(V, \frac{d\xi}{M_i}\right)$.
- 2) For $h \in L^2$, the equation $\mathcal{L}_i(g) = h$, (i = 1, 2) has a unique solution $g \in L^2\left(V, \frac{d\xi}{M_i}\right)$, satisfying

$$\int_V g(\xi) \, d\xi = 0 \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \int_V h(\xi) \, d\xi = 0.$$

- 3) The equation $\mathcal{L}_i(g) = \xi M_i(\xi)$, has a unique solution which be denoted by $\theta_i(\xi)$, for i = 1, 2.
- 4) The kernel of \mathcal{L}_i is $N(\mathcal{L}_i) = vect(M_i(\xi)), i = 1, 2$.

2.2.2 The equivalent micro-macro formulation

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In this subsection, we rewrite each kinetic equation in (2.2.1) as an equivalent system coupling a hydrodynamic part with a kinetic part. For this, we decompose f_i , (i = 1, 2) into a main part that is close to the equilibrium in diffusive regimes, and another part that vanishes in its limit, i.e

$$f_1(t,x,\xi) = M_1(\xi)c(t,x) + \varepsilon g_1(t,x,\xi), \quad f_2(t,x,\xi) = M_2(\xi)s(t,x) + \varepsilon g_2(t,x,\xi),$$

where

$$f_{V}(t,x) = \int_{V} f_{1}(t,x,\xi)d\xi, \quad s(t,x) = \int_{V} f_{2}(t,x,\xi)d\xi.$$

We will use frequently the notation $\langle . \rangle$ which denote the integral with respect to the variable ξ . We observe that $\langle g_i \rangle = 0$, for i = 1, 2. Inserting f_1 and f_2 in the kinetic model (2.2.1) and using the properties of the kernel operators, we get

$$\partial_{t}(M_{1}c) + \varepsilon \partial_{t}g_{1} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\xi M_{1} \cdot \nabla_{x}c + \xi \cdot \nabla_{x}g_{1} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\mathcal{L}_{1}(g_{1}) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\mathcal{T}_{1}^{2}[f_{2}](M_{1}(\xi)c) + \mathcal{T}_{1}^{2}[f_{2}](g_{1}) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}G_{11}(f_{1}, f_{2}, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi) + G_{12}(f_{1}, f_{2}, \xi), \quad (2.2.10)$$

$$\partial_{t}(M_{2}s) + \varepsilon \partial_{t}g_{2} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\xi M_{2} \cdot \nabla_{x}s + \xi \cdot \nabla_{x}g_{2} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\mathcal{L}_{2}(g_{2}) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\mathcal{T}_{2}^{2}[f_{1}](M_{2}(\xi)s) + \mathcal{T}_{2}^{2}[f_{1}](g_{2}) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}G_{21}(f_{1}, f_{2}, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi) + G_{22}(f_{1}, f_{2}, \xi), \quad (2.2.11)$$

$$\mathbb{K}^{-1}\boldsymbol{u} + \sqrt{\mu}\operatorname{\mathbf{curl}}\boldsymbol{\omega} + \nabla_{x}p = Q(c,s)\boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F}, \quad \boldsymbol{\omega} - \sqrt{\mu}\operatorname{\mathbf{curl}}\boldsymbol{u} = \boldsymbol{0}, \quad \operatorname{div}\boldsymbol{u} = \boldsymbol{0}. \quad (2.2.12)$$

The micro-macro formulation equivalent to system (??) is obtained by two steps. In the first step, we use a projection technique to separate the macroscopic densities (c(t, x),

s(t, x)) and microscopic quantities $(g_1(t, x, \xi), g_2(t, x, \xi))$. For that, let P_{M_i} denote the orthogonal projection onto $N(\mathcal{L}_i)$, for i = 1, 2. It follows

$$P_{M_i}(h) = \langle h \rangle M_i$$
, for any $h \in L^2\left(V, \frac{d\xi}{M_i}\right)$,

for i = 1, 2. Regarding the orthogonal projections P_{M_1} , P_{M_2} , we have the following result: **Lemma 2.2.2** (cf. [11]) For the projection P_{M_1} , P_{M_2} , we have the following properties :

$$\begin{split} (I - P_{M_1})(M_1c) &= (I - P_{M_2})(M_2s) = P_{M_1}(g_1) = P_{M_2}(g_2) = 0, \\ (I - P_{M_1})(\xi M_1 \cdot \nabla_x c) &= \xi M_1 \cdot \nabla_x c, \qquad (I - P_{M_2})(\xi M_2 \cdot \nabla_x s) = \xi M_2 \cdot \nabla_x s, \\ (I - P_{M_1})(\mathcal{T}_1^2[f_2](M_1(\xi)c) = \mathcal{T}_1^2[f_2](M_1(\xi)c), \\ (I - P_{M_2})(\mathcal{T}_2^2[f_1](M_2(\xi)s)) = \mathcal{T}_2^2[f_1](M_2(\xi)s), \\ (I - P_{M_2})(\mathcal{T}_2^2[f_1](h)) &= \mathcal{T}_2^2[f_1](h), \quad (I - P_{M_1})(\mathcal{T}_1^2[f_2](h)) = \mathcal{T}_1^2[f_2](h), \\ (I - P_{M_1})(\mathcal{L}_i(h)) &= \mathcal{L}_i(h), \quad (I - P_{M_i})(G_{i1}(f_1, f_2, \mathbf{u}, \xi)) = G_{i1}(f_1, f_2, \mathbf{u}, \xi), \quad i = 1,2 \end{split}$$

Taking the operators $I - P_{M_1}$ and $I - P_{M_2}$ into (2.2.10) and (2.2.11), respectively, and using Lemma 2.2.2, yield the following microscopic equations:

$$\varepsilon \partial_t g_1 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \xi M_1 \cdot \nabla_x c + (I - P_{M_1}) (\xi \cdot \nabla_x g_1) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{L}_1(g_1) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{T}_1^2[f_2](M_1(\xi)c) \quad (2.2.13)$$
$$+ \mathcal{T}_1^2[f_2](g_1) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} G_{11}(f_1, f_2, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi) + (I - P_{M_1}) G_{12}(f_1, f_2, \xi),$$

$$\varepsilon \partial_t g_2 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \xi M_2 \cdot \nabla_x s + (I - P_{M_2})(\xi \cdot \nabla_x g_2) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{L}_2(g_2) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{T}_2^2[f_1](M_2(\xi)s) \quad (2.2.14)$$
$$+ \mathcal{T}_2^2[f_1](g_2) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} G_{21}(f_1, f_2, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi) + (I - P_{M_1})G_{22}(f_1, f_2, \xi).$$

For the second step, we integrate (2.2.10) with respect to ξ

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_t c \int_V M_1 d\xi + \varepsilon \partial_t \int_V g_1 d\xi + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_V \xi M_1 d\xi \cdot \nabla_x c + \int_V \xi \cdot \nabla_x g_1 d\xi &= \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_V \mathcal{L}_1(g_1) d\xi \\ &+ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_V \mathcal{T}_1^2[f_2](M_1(\xi)c) d\xi + \int_V \mathcal{T}_1^2[f_2](g_1) d\xi \\ &+ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_V G_{11}(f_1, f_2, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi) d\xi + \int_V G_{12}(f_1, f_2, \xi) d\xi. \end{aligned}$$

Thanks to (2.2.4), (2.2.6) and (2.2.9) and the fact that $\langle g_1 \rangle = \langle g_2 \rangle = 0$, we obtain the following macroscopic equation:

$$\partial_t c + \langle \xi \cdot \nabla_x g_1 \rangle = \langle G_{12}(f_1, f_2, \xi) \rangle.$$
(2.2.15)

Similarly to (2.2.15), we obtain from (2.2.11)

$$\partial_t s + \langle \xi \cdot \nabla_x g_2 \rangle = \langle G_{22}(f_1, f_2, \xi) \rangle. \tag{2.2.16}$$

Finally, thanks to (2.2.13), (2.2.14), (2.2.15), and (2.2.16), the micro-macro formulation reads

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\varepsilon \partial_{t} g_{1} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \xi M_{1} \cdot \nabla_{x} c + (I - P_{M_{1}}) (\xi \cdot \nabla_{x} g_{1}) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{L}_{1}(g_{1}) \\ &+ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{T}_{1}^{2}[f_{2}](M_{1}(\xi)c) + \mathcal{T}_{1}^{2}[f_{2}](g_{1}) \\ &+ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} G_{11}(f_{1}, f_{2}, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi) + (I - P_{M_{1}})G_{12}(f_{1}, f_{2}, \xi), \\ \partial_{t} c + \langle \xi \cdot \nabla_{x} g_{1} \rangle = \langle G_{12}(f_{1}, f_{2}, \xi) \rangle, \\ \varepsilon \partial_{t} g_{2} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \xi M_{2} \cdot \nabla_{x} s + (I - P_{M_{2}})(\xi \cdot \nabla_{x} g_{2}) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{L}_{2}(g_{2}) \\ &+ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{T}_{2}^{2}[f_{1}](M_{2}(\xi)s) + \mathcal{T}_{2}^{2}[f_{1}](g_{2}) \\ &+ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} G_{21}(f_{1}, f_{2}, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi) + (I - P_{M_{2}})G_{22}(f_{1}, f_{2}, \xi), \\ \partial_{t} s + \langle \xi \cdot \nabla_{x} g_{2} \rangle = \langle G_{22}(f_{1}, f_{2}, \xi) \rangle, \\ \mathbb{K}^{-1} \boldsymbol{u} + \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{\omega} + \nabla_{x} p = Q(c, s)\boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F}, \\ \boldsymbol{\omega} - \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{u} = \mathbf{0}, \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.2.17)$$

Note that system (2.2.17) is the micro-macro formulation of the kinetic-fluid model (2.2.1). The following proposition shows that system (2.2.17) and the model (2.2.1) are equivalent.

Proposition 2.2.1 *i)* Let (f_1, f_2, u, ω, p) be a solution of the kinetic system (2.2.1). Then the functions $(c, g_1, s, g_2, u, \omega, p)$ (where $c = \langle f_1 \rangle$, $s = \langle f_2 \rangle$, $g_1 = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}(f_1 - M_1c)$, $g_2 = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}(f_2 - M_2s)$) are a solution to coupled system (2.2.17) with the associated initial data

$$c(t=0) = c_0 = \langle f_{10} \rangle, \quad g_1(t=0) = g_{10} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}(f_{10} - M_1 c_0),$$
 (2.2.18)

$$s(t=0) = s_0 = \langle f_{20} \rangle, \quad g_2(t=0) = g_{20} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon} (f_{20} - M_2 s_0),$$
 (2.2.19)

ii) Conversely, if $(c, g_1, s, g_2, \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{\omega}, p)$ satisfies system (2.2.17) with initial data $(c_0, g_{10}, s_0, g_{20})$ such that $\langle g_{10} \rangle = \langle g_{20} \rangle = 0$, then $(f_1 = M_1c + \varepsilon g_1, f_2 = M_2s + \varepsilon g_2, \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{\omega}, p)$ is a solution to kinetic model (2.2.1) with initial data $f_{10} = M_1c_0 + \varepsilon g_{10}$, $f_{20} = M_2s_0 + \varepsilon g_{20}$ and we have $c = \langle f_1 \rangle$, $s = \langle f_2 \rangle$ and $\langle g_1 \rangle = \langle g_2 \rangle = 0$.

Remark 2.2.1 *The proof of i) is already detailed above. For the proof of ii) we refer the reader to proof of Theorem 1 in [11].*

In order to derive the macroscopic systems from the micro-macro formulation (2.2.17), we need more assumptions on the turning operators \mathcal{T}_1^2 , \mathcal{T}_2^2 (recall that \mathcal{T}_1^2 and \mathcal{T}_2^2 are given in (2.2.3)-(2.2.7)) and the interactions terms G_{i1} , G_{i2} . Moreover, we assume that these terms satisfy the following asymptotic behavior when $\varepsilon \to 0$:

$$\mathcal{T}_{1}^{2}[M_{2}(\xi)s + \varepsilon g_{2}] = \mathcal{T}_{1}^{2}[M_{2}(\xi)s] + O(\varepsilon), \quad \mathcal{T}_{2}^{2}[M_{1}(\xi)c + \varepsilon g_{1}] = \mathcal{T}_{2}^{2}[M_{1}(\xi)c] + O(\varepsilon),$$
(2.2.20)

and for i = 1, 2,

$$G_{i1}(M_1(\xi)c + \varepsilon g_1, M_2(\xi)s + \varepsilon g_2, u, \xi) = G_{i1}(M_1(\xi)c, M_2(\xi)s, u, \xi) + O(\varepsilon), \quad (2.2.21)$$

$$G_{2i}(M_1(\xi)c + \varepsilon g_1, M_2(\xi)s + \varepsilon g_2, \xi) = G_{2i}(M_1(\xi)c, M_2(\xi)s, \xi) + O(\varepsilon).$$
(2.2.22)

2.2.3 Derivation of macroscopic systems

This subsection is devoted to derive a macroscopic systems from the micro-macro formulation (2.2.17) of the kinetic-fluid system (2.2.1) as ε goes to 0. First, we use (2.2.20)-(2.2.22) and (2.2.17), to obtain

$$\mathcal{L}_{1}(g_{1}) = \xi M_{1} \cdot \nabla_{x} c - \mathcal{T}_{1}^{2} [M_{2}(\xi)s](M_{1}(\xi)c) - G_{11}(M_{1}c, M_{2}s, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi) + O(\varepsilon),$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{2}(g_{2}) = \xi M_{2} \cdot \nabla_{x}s - \mathcal{T}_{2}^{2} [M_{1}(\xi)c](M_{2}(\xi)s) - G_{21}(M_{1}c, M_{2}s, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi) + O(\varepsilon).$$

Observe that from Lemma 2.2.1, (2)), \mathcal{L}_1 and \mathcal{L}_2 are and invertible. This implies

$$g_{1} = (\mathcal{L}_{1})^{-1}(\xi M_{1} \cdot \nabla_{x} v) - (\mathcal{L}_{1})^{-1}(\mathcal{T}_{1}^{2}[M_{2}(\xi)s](M_{1}(\xi)c))$$

$$-(\mathcal{L}_{1})^{-1}(G_{11}(M_{1}c, M_{2}s, u, \xi)) + O(\varepsilon),$$
(2.2.23)

and

$$g_{2} = (\mathcal{L}_{2})^{-1}(\xi M_{2} \cdot \nabla_{x} s) - (\mathcal{L}_{2})^{-1}(\mathcal{T}_{2}^{2}[M_{1}(\xi)c](M_{2}(\xi)s))$$

$$-(\mathcal{L}_{2})^{-1}(G_{21}(M_{1}c, M_{2}s, u, \xi)) + O(\varepsilon).$$
(2.2.24)

Inserting (2.2.23) and (2.2.24) into the second and the fourth equations in (2.2.17), yield the following coupled macroscopic system:

$$\begin{cases} \partial_{t}c + \left\langle \xi . \nabla_{x}(\mathcal{L}_{1})^{-1}(\xi M_{1} \cdot \nabla_{x}c) \right\rangle - \left\langle \xi . \nabla_{x}(\mathcal{L}_{1})^{-1}(\mathcal{T}_{1}^{2}[M_{2}(\xi)s](M_{1}(\xi)c)) \right\rangle \\ - \left\langle \xi . \nabla_{x}(\mathcal{L}_{1})^{-1}(G_{11}(M_{1}c, M_{2}s, u, \xi)) \right\rangle = \left\langle G_{12}(M_{1}c, M_{2}s, \xi) \right\rangle + O(\varepsilon), \\ \partial_{t}s + \left\langle \xi . \nabla_{x}(\mathcal{L}_{2})^{-1}(\xi M_{2} \cdot \nabla_{x}s) \right\rangle - \left\langle \xi . \nabla_{x}(\mathcal{L}_{2})^{-1}(\mathcal{T}_{2}^{2}[M_{1}(\xi)c](M_{2}(\xi)s)) \right\rangle \\ - \left\langle \xi . \nabla_{x}(\mathcal{L}_{2})^{-1}(G_{21}(M_{1}c, M_{2}s, u, \xi)) \right\rangle = \left\langle G_{22}(M_{1}c, M_{2}s, \xi) \right\rangle + O(\varepsilon), \\ \mathbb{K}^{-1}u + \sqrt{\mu}\operatorname{\mathbf{curl}}\omega + \nabla_{x}p = Q(c, s)g + \mathbf{F}, \quad \omega - \sqrt{\mu}\operatorname{\mathbf{curl}}u = \mathbf{0}, \quad \operatorname{div} u = \mathbf{0}. \end{cases}$$

$$(2.2.25)$$

The next lemma gives the calculations of the terms with the inverse of the operators \mathcal{L}_1 and \mathcal{L}_2 appearing in system (2.2.25).

Lemma 2.2.3 (cf. [11]) Assume that the operators \mathcal{L}_1 , \mathcal{L}_2 , G_{11} and G_{21} are satisfy the assumptions above. Then, we have the following identities :

$$\left\langle \xi . \nabla_x (\mathcal{L}_1)^{-1} (\xi M_1 \cdot \nabla_x c) \right\rangle = \operatorname{div}_x \left(\left\langle \xi \otimes \theta_1 (\xi) \right\rangle \cdot \nabla_x c \right),$$

$$\left\langle \xi \cdot \nabla_x (\mathcal{L}_2)^{-1} (\xi M_2 \cdot \nabla_x s) \right\rangle = \operatorname{div}_x \left(\left\langle \xi \otimes \theta_2(\xi) \right\rangle \cdot \nabla_x s \right),$$
$$\left\langle \xi \cdot \nabla_x (\mathcal{L}_1)^{-1} (\mathcal{T}_1^2[M_2(\xi)s](M_1(\xi)c)) \right\rangle = \operatorname{div}_x \left\langle \frac{\theta_1(\xi)}{M_1(\xi)} c \mathcal{T}_1^2[M_2(\xi)s](M_1(\xi)) \right\rangle,$$
$$\left\langle \xi \cdot \nabla_x (\mathcal{L}_i)^{-1} (G_{i1}(M_1c, M_2s, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi)) \right\rangle = \operatorname{div}_x \left\langle \frac{\theta_i(\xi)}{M_i(\xi), \xi} G_{i1}(M_1c, M_2s, \boldsymbol{u}, \xi) \right\rangle, \quad i = 1, 2.$$

In addition, here we need the following identity

$$\left\langle \xi \cdot \nabla_x (\mathcal{L}_2)^{-1} (\mathcal{T}_2^2[M_1(\xi)c](M_2(\xi)s)) \right\rangle = \operatorname{div}_x \left\langle \frac{\theta_2(\xi)}{M_2(\xi)} s \mathcal{T}_2^2[M_1(\xi)c](M_2(\xi)) \right\rangle,$$

where θ_1 and θ_2 are given in Lemma 2.2.1.

Finally, thanks to system (2.2.25) and Lemma 2.2.3 we get the following macroscopic system:

$$\begin{cases} \partial_t c + \operatorname{div}_x \left(c \,\alpha_1(s) + \Gamma_1(c, s, \boldsymbol{u}) - d_c \cdot \nabla_x c \right) - H_1(c, s) + O(\varepsilon) = 0, \\ \partial_t s + \operatorname{div}_x \left(s \,\alpha_2(c) + \Gamma_2(c, s, \boldsymbol{u}) - d_s \cdot \nabla_x s \right) - H_2(c, s) + O(\varepsilon) = 0, \\ \mathbb{K}^{-1}\boldsymbol{u} + \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{\mathbf{curl}} \boldsymbol{\omega} + \nabla_x p = Q(c, s)\boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F}, \quad \boldsymbol{\omega} - \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{\mathbf{curl}} \boldsymbol{u} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \operatorname{div} \boldsymbol{u} = 0, \\ (2.2.26) \end{cases}$$

where d_c , d_s , $\alpha_1(s)$, $\alpha_2(c)$, $\Gamma_1(c, s, u)$, $\Gamma_2(c, s, u)$, $H_1(c, s)$ and $H_2(c, s)$ are given by

$$d_c = -\int_V \xi \otimes \theta_1(\xi) d\xi, \quad d_s = -\int_V \xi \otimes \theta_2(\xi) d\xi, \quad (2.2.27)$$

$$\alpha_1(s) = -\int_V \frac{\theta_1(\xi)}{M_1(\xi)} \mathcal{T}_1^2[M_2(\xi)s](M_1(\xi))d\xi, \quad \alpha_2(c) = -\int_V \frac{\theta_2(\xi)}{M_2(\xi)} \mathcal{T}_2^2[M_1(\xi)c](M_2(\xi))d\xi, \quad (2.2.28)$$

$$\Gamma_i(c,s,u) = -\int_V \frac{\theta_i(\xi)}{M_i(\xi)} G_{i1}(M_1c, M_2s, u, \xi) d\xi, \quad i = 1, 2,$$
(2.2.29)

$$H_1(c,s) = \int_V G_{12}(M_1c, M_2s, \xi) d\xi, \quad H_2(c,s) = \int_V G_{22}(M_1c, M_2s, \xi) d\xi.$$
(2.2.30)

2.2.4 Derivation of cross-diffusion-Brinkman system

In this subsection, we consider the case where the set for velocity is the sphere of radius r > 0, $V = rS^{d-1}$ and $x \in \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. We assume that the probability kernel T_i^1 is given by

$$T_i^1 = \frac{\sigma_i}{|V|}$$
, for $i = 1, 2$.

This implies

$$\mathcal{L}_{i}(f) = -\frac{\sigma_{i}}{|V|} \left(f|V| - \langle f \rangle \right), \text{ for } i = 1, 2.$$

Observe that $M_i(\xi) = \frac{1}{|V|}$ satisfies (2.2.6). For this choice of M_i , $\theta_i(\xi) = -\frac{\xi}{\sigma_i|V|}$ is a solution of $\mathcal{L}_i(\theta_i(\xi)) = \xi M_i(\xi)$, for i = 1, 2. Now, we let $T_1^2[g]$ and $T_2^2[g]$ such that

$$T_1^2[g] = a_{12} \frac{\beta_1}{|V|} \xi. \nabla_x g$$
 and $T_2^2[g] = a_{21} \frac{\beta_2}{|V|} \xi. \nabla_x g$,

where $\beta_1 = \frac{\sigma_1}{r^2} d |V|$ and $\beta_2 = \frac{\sigma_2}{r^2} d |V|$. It follows

$$\mathcal{T}_1^2[M_2s](M_1) = -a_{12}\frac{\beta_1 M_2}{|V|^2} \xi \cdot \nabla_x s \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{T}_2^2[M_1c](M_2) = -a_{21}\frac{\beta_2 M_1}{|V|^2} \xi \cdot \nabla_x c.$$

Therefore, we get

$$\alpha_1(s) = -\frac{\beta_1 a_{12}}{\sigma_1 |V|^2} \left(\int_V \xi \otimes \xi d\xi \right) \cdot \nabla_x s, = -a_{12} \nabla_x s,$$

and

$$\alpha_2(v) = -\frac{\beta_2 a_{21}}{\sigma_2 |V|^2} \left(\int_V \xi \otimes \xi d\xi \right) \cdot \nabla_x c = -a_{21} \nabla_x c.$$

Moreover, we use (2.2.27) to obtain

$$d_{c} = \frac{1}{\sigma_{1}|V|} \left(\int_{V} \xi \otimes \xi d\xi \right) = \frac{r^{2}}{d\sigma_{1}} I, \quad d_{s} = \frac{1}{\sigma_{2}|V|} \left(\int_{V} \xi \otimes \xi d\xi \right) = \frac{r^{2}}{d\sigma_{2}} I.$$
(2.2.31)

Now, we define $G_{i,1}$, for i = 1, 2 by

$$\begin{cases}
G_{11}(M_{1}c, M_{2}s, \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \frac{d\sigma_{1}}{r^{2}|V|} \left(M_{1} c \, \boldsymbol{u} - M_{1}(2a_{11}c + \tilde{d}_{c}(c)) - a_{12}M_{2}s \right) \boldsymbol{\xi}. \, \nabla_{x}c, \\
G_{21}(M_{1}c, M_{2}s, \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) = \frac{d\sigma_{2}}{r^{2}|V|} \left(M_{2} s \, \boldsymbol{u} - a_{21}M_{1}c - M_{2}(2a_{22}s + \tilde{d}_{s}(s)) \right) \boldsymbol{\xi}. \, \nabla_{x}s, \\
(2.2.32)
\end{cases}$$

where $\tilde{d}_c(c)$ and $\tilde{d}_s(s)$ are a nonlinear positive functions. It is not difficult to see that $\int_V G_{i1} d\xi = 0$ and therefore satisfies condition (2.2.9) (recall that $\langle \xi M_i \rangle = 0$), for i = 1, 2. Next, we use the definitions of Γ_1 and Γ_2 in (2.2.29), to obtain from (2.2.32) and (2.2.31) (recall that $\theta_i = -\frac{\xi}{\sigma_i |V|}$)

$$\Gamma_1(c,s,\boldsymbol{u}) = \frac{d}{r^2|V|^2} \left(\int_V \boldsymbol{\xi} \otimes \boldsymbol{\xi} d\boldsymbol{\xi} \right) \cdot \left(c\boldsymbol{u} - (2a_{11}c + a_{12}s + \tilde{d}_c(c))\nabla_x c \right)$$

= $c\boldsymbol{u} - (2a_{11}c + a_{12}s + \tilde{d}_c(c))\nabla_x c,$ (2.2.33)

$$\Gamma_2(c,s,\boldsymbol{u}) = \frac{d}{r^2|V|^2} \left(\int_V \boldsymbol{\xi} \otimes \boldsymbol{\xi} d\boldsymbol{\xi} \right) \cdot \left(s\boldsymbol{u} - (a_{21}c + 2a_{22}s + \tilde{d}_s(s))\nabla_x s \right)$$

= $s\boldsymbol{u} - (a_{21}c + 2a_{22}s + \tilde{d}_s(s))\nabla_x s.$ (2.2.34)

Now collecting the previous results with div $_x u = 0$ and (2.2.26), we arrive to the macroscopic cross-diffusion-Brinkman system of the order $O(\varepsilon)$

$$\begin{cases} c_t + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla c - \operatorname{div}_x \left((D_c(c) + 2a_{11}c + a_{12}s)\nabla_x c + a_{12}c\nabla_x s \right) = H_1(c,s) + O(\varepsilon), \\ s_t + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla s - \operatorname{div}_x \left((D_s(s) + a_{21}c + 2a_{22}s)\nabla_x s + a_{21}s\nabla_x c \right) = H_2(c,s) + O(\varepsilon), \\ \mathbb{K}^{-1}\boldsymbol{u} + \sqrt{\mu}\operatorname{\mathbf{curl}}\boldsymbol{\omega} + \nabla_x p = Q(c,s)\boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F}, \quad \boldsymbol{\omega} - \sqrt{\mu}\operatorname{\mathbf{curl}}\boldsymbol{u} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \operatorname{div}_x \boldsymbol{u} = 0, \\ (2.2.35) \end{cases}$$

where $D_c(c) = \frac{r^2}{d\sigma_1} + \tilde{d}_c(c)$ and $D_s(s) = \frac{r^2}{d\sigma_2} + \tilde{d}_s(s)$. In order to derive cross-diffusion-Brinkman system with the explicit form of H_c , H_s , we define the interactions operators G_{12} and G_{22} by

$$G_{12}(M_1c, M_2s, \xi) = \frac{H_1(c, s)}{|V|},$$

$$G_{22}(M_1c, M_2s, \xi) = \frac{H_2(c, s)}{|V|}.$$
(2.2.36)

Finally, we use (2.2.30) to deduce $H_1 = H_c$ and $H_2 = H_s$. Note that we can choose different explicit forms depending on the field of interest (for example, Lotka-Voltera reaction terms as in [6]).

2.3 Mathematical analysis of the cross-diffusion-Brinkman system

Before stating our result concerning the weak solutions, we collect some preliminary material, including relevant notations and conditions imposed on the data of our problem. Let Ω be a bounded, open subsets of \mathbb{R}^3 with a smooth boundary $\partial\Omega$; η is the unit outward normal to Ω on $\partial\Omega$. Next, $|\Omega|$ is the Lebesgue measure of Ω . We denote by $\mathrm{H}^1(\Omega)$ the Sobolev space of functions $u : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ for which $u \in \mathrm{L}^2(\Omega)$ and $\nabla_x u \in \mathrm{L}^2(\Omega; \mathbb{R}^3)$. For $1 \leq p \leq +\infty$, $\|\cdot\|_{\mathrm{L}^p(\Omega)}$ is the usual norm in $L^p(\Omega)$; then

$$L^p_+(\Omega) = \{ u : \Omega \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ \text{ measurable and } \int_{\Omega} |u(x)|^p \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} < +\infty \},$$

$$L^{\infty}_{+}(\Omega) = \{u : \Omega \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+} \text{ measurable and } \sup_{x \in \Omega} |u(x)| < +\infty\}.$$

If *X* is a Banach space, a < b and $1 \le p \le +\infty$, $L^p(a, b; X)$ denotes the space of all measurable functions $u : (a, b) \longrightarrow X$ such that $|| u(\cdot) ||_X$ belongs to $L^p(a, b)$. Next *T* is a positive number and

$$\Omega_t := \Omega \times (0, t)$$
 and $\Sigma_t := \partial \Omega \times (0, t)$,

for $0 < t \leq T$.

Regarding the permeability tensor, we suppose that $\mathbb{K} \in [C(\bar{\Omega})]^{3\times 3}$ is symmetric and uniformly positive definite. Moreover, there exists C > 0 such that

$$\mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{t}} \mathbb{K}^{-1}(x) \mathbf{v} \ge C |\mathbf{v}|^2 \quad \forall \ \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^3, \ \forall \ x \in \Omega.$$
 (2.3.1)

The diffusivities are assumed positive, coercive, and continuous

 $D_i: [0,1] \mapsto \mathbb{R}^+ \text{ is continuous,} \quad 0 < D^{\min} \leq D_i(u) \leq D^{\max} < \infty, \quad u \in \mathbb{R},$ (2.3.2)

for $i \in \{s, c\}$. In addition we assume that Q is a continuous function and there exists constant a $C_Q > 0$ such that

$$|Q(c,s)| \le C_Q(1+|c|+|s|) \text{ for all } c, s \in \mathbb{R}.$$
(2.3.3)

Initial data are assumed nonnegative and in L²

$$c_0, s_0 \ge 0, \quad c_0, s_0 \in L^2(\Omega).$$
 (2.3.4)

In the proof of the existence of the weak solution, we will use the following assumption (ellipticity condition)

$$8a_{11}a_{21} \ge a_{12}^2 \text{ and } 8a_{22}a_{12} \ge a_{21}^2.$$
 (2.3.5)

Next, we consider the kernel of the bilinear form $\int_{\Omega} q \operatorname{div} u \, dx$, that is

$$X := \{ \mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{H}_0(\operatorname{div}; \Omega) : \int_{\Omega} q \operatorname{div} \mathbf{v} \, d\mathbf{x} = 0, \, \forall q \in \mathrm{L}^2_0(\Omega) \}$$
$$= \{ \mathbf{v} \in \mathrm{H}_0(\operatorname{div}; \Omega) : \operatorname{div} \mathbf{v} = 0 \text{ a.e. in } \Omega \}.$$

We endow the space $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{curl}; \Omega)$ with the following μ -dependent norm:

$$\|z\|^2_{\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{curl};\Omega)} := \|z\|^2_{0,\Omega} + \mu\|\operatorname{\mathbf{curl}} z\|^2_{0,\Omega}.$$

Moreover, we recall the following inf-sup condition (see for e.g. [50] for more details): there exists $C_{\Omega} > 0$ only depending on Ω , such that

$$\sup_{\substack{\mathbf{v}\in\mathbf{H}(\operatorname{div};\Omega)\\\mathbf{v}\neq0}}\frac{\left|\int_{\Omega}q\,\operatorname{div}\mathbf{v}\,\mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}\right|}{\|\mathbf{v}\|_{\mathbf{H}(\operatorname{div};\Omega)}}\geq C_{\Omega}\|q\|_{0,\Omega}\quad\forall q\in\mathrm{L}^{2}_{0}(\Omega).$$
(2.3.6)

Now we define what we mean by weak solutions of the system (2.1.3). We also supply our main existence result.

Definition 2.3.1 We say that (c, s, u, ω, p) is a weak solution to problem (2.1.3), if c and s are nonnegative,

$$c, s \in L^{\infty}(0, T; L^{2}(\Omega)) \cap L^{2}(0, T; H^{1}(\Omega))$$
$$u \in L^{2}(0, T; H(\operatorname{div}; \Omega)), \quad \omega \in L^{2}(0, T; H(\operatorname{curl}; \Omega)), p \in L^{2}(0, T; L^{2}_{0}(\Omega))$$

and

$$\begin{split} \int_{0}^{T} \langle \partial_{t}c, \varphi_{c} \rangle \, \mathrm{d}t + \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \Big[\left(D_{c}(c) + 2 \, a_{11} \, c + a_{12} \, s \right) \nabla_{x}c + a_{12} \, c \, \nabla_{x}s - c \boldsymbol{u} \Big] \cdot \nabla_{x}\varphi_{c} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t \\ &= \iint_{\Omega_{T}} H_{c}(c,s)\varphi_{c} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t, \\ \int_{0}^{T} \langle \partial_{t}s, \varphi_{s} \rangle \, \mathrm{d}t + \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \Big[\left(D_{s}(s) + a_{21} \, c + 2a_{22} \, s \right) \nabla_{x}s + a_{21} \, s \, \nabla_{x}c - s \boldsymbol{u} \Big] \cdot \nabla_{x}\varphi_{s} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t \\ &= \iint_{\Omega_{T}} H_{s}(c,s)\varphi_{s} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t, \\ \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \mathbb{K}^{-1}\boldsymbol{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t + \sqrt{\mu} \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \mathbf{curl} \, \boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t - \iint_{\Omega_{T}} p \, \mathrm{div}_{x} \, \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t \\ &= \iint_{\Omega_{T}} (Q(c,s)\boldsymbol{g} + \boldsymbol{F}) \cdot \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t, \\ \sqrt{\mu} \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \mathbf{curl} \, \boldsymbol{z} \cdot \boldsymbol{u} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t - \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \boldsymbol{z} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t = 0, \\ &- \iint_{\Omega_{T}} q \, \mathrm{div}_{x} \, \boldsymbol{u} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t = 0, \end{split}$$

for all φ_c , $\varphi_s \in L^2(0, T; W^{1,\infty}(\Omega))$, $\mathbf{v} \in L^2(0, T; \mathbf{H}_0(\operatorname{div}; \Omega))$, $z \in L^2(0, T; \mathbf{H}_0(\operatorname{curl}; \Omega))$, $q \in L^2(0, T; \mathbf{L}^2_0(\Omega))$. $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denotes the duality pairing between $W^{1,\infty}(\Omega)$ and $(W^{1,\infty}(\Omega))'$.

Theorem 2.3.1 Assume conditions (2.3.1), (2.3.2), (2.3.5) and (2.3.6) hold. If $c_0 \in L^2_+(\Omega)$, $s_0 \in L^2_+(\Omega)$, then the problem (2.1.3) possesses a weak solution.

To prove Theorem 2.3.1, we first prove existence of solutions to the approximate problem (2.3.7) below by applying the Schauder fixed-point theorem (in an appropriate functional setting). Then, having proved existence for the aproximate system, the final goal is to send the regularization parameter ε to zero to fabricate weak solutions of the original systems (2.1.3). Convergence is achieved by means of a priori estimates and compactness arguments.

Remark 2.3.1 Note that a major difficulty for our system (2.1.3) is the strong coupling in the highest derivatives. Therefore, standard parabolic theory is not directly applicable to our system due to the cross-diffusion-Brinkman terms. We point out that this system is strongly nonlinear and so no maximum principle applies. Moreover, we have not been able to prove uniqueness of weak solutions because of the presence of nonlinear lower-order terms (cross-diffusion terms).

2.3.1 Existence of solutions for the approximate problems

This subsection is devoted to proving existence of solutions to the approximate problem (2.3.7) below of system (2.1.3). The existence proof is based on the Shauder fixed-point theorem, a priori estimates, and the compactness method. The approximation systems read for $(t, x) \in (0, T] \times \Omega$:

$$\begin{cases} c_t + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla_x c - \operatorname{div}_x \left[\left(D_c(c) + 2 a_{11} f_{\varepsilon}^+(c) + a_{12} f_{\varepsilon}^+(s) \right) \nabla_x c + a_{12} f_{\varepsilon}^+(c) \nabla_x s \right] = H_{c,\varepsilon}(c^+, s^+), \\ s_t + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla_x s - \operatorname{div}_x \left[\left(D_s(s) + a_{21} f_{\varepsilon}^+(c) + 2a_{22} f_{\varepsilon}^+(s) \right) \nabla_x s + a_{21} f_{\varepsilon}^+(s) \nabla_x c \right] = H_{s,\varepsilon}(c^+, s^+), \\ \mathbb{K}^{-1}\boldsymbol{u} + \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{\omega} + \nabla_x p = Q(s,c)\boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F}, \quad \boldsymbol{\omega} - \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{u} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \operatorname{div}_x \boldsymbol{u} = \mathbf{0}, \end{cases}$$

$$(2.3.7)$$

subject to the boundary conditions and initial data given by (2.1.4). Herein, $\varepsilon > 0$ is a small number,

$$\begin{cases} H_{c,\varepsilon}(a) = \frac{H_c}{1+\varepsilon |H_c|} \text{ and } H_{s,\varepsilon}(a) = \frac{H_s}{1+\varepsilon |H_s|}, \\ f_{\varepsilon}(a) = \frac{a}{1+\varepsilon |a|} \text{ and } b^+ = \max(0,b) \text{ for any } a, b \in \mathbb{R}. \end{cases}$$

Note that under condition (2.3.5), the matrix

$$M(c,s) = \begin{pmatrix} \left(2a_{11}f^{+}(c) + a_{12}f^{+}(s)\right)Id_{3} & \frac{1}{2}\left(a_{12}f^{+}(c) + a_{21}f^{+}(s)\right)Id_{3} \\ \frac{1}{2}\left(a_{12}f^{+}(c) + a_{21}f^{+}(s)\right)Id_{3} & \left(a_{21}f^{+}(c) + 2a_{22}f^{+}(s)\right)Id_{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

is uniformly nonnegative. Indeed, its characteristic polynomial factors out

$$P(\lambda) = \frac{1}{4^3} \left(4\lambda^2 - 4\left(2a_{11}f^+(c) + a_{12}f^+(s) + a_{21}f^+(c) + 2a_{22}f^+(s)\right)\lambda + R \right)^3.$$

Setting $f^+(s) = \kappa f^+(c)$, $\kappa \ge 0$, one gets $R = 4f^+(c)^2 Q(\kappa)$, where

$$Q(\kappa) = (8a_{11}a_{21} - a_{12}^2) + (16a_{11}a_{22} + 2a_{12}a_{21})\kappa + (8a_{22}a_{12} - a_{21}^2)\kappa^2.$$

We conclude that if $8a_{11}a_{21} \ge a_{12}^2$ and $8a_{22}a_{12} \ge a_{21}^2$, then M(c,s) is uniformly nonnegative. Hence the utility of assumption (2.3.5). (see [25] for more details). We shall frequently use this to prove the existence (and nonnegativity) of weak solutions.
2.3.2 Existence result to the fixed problem

In this subsection, we omit the dependence of the solutions on the parameter ε . We prove, for each fixed $\varepsilon > 0$, the existence of solutions to the fixed problem (2.3.7), by applying the Schauder fixed-point theorem. Since we use Schauder fixed-point theorem, we need to introduce the following closed subset of the Banach space $L^2(\Omega_T, \mathbb{R}^n)$:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{ U = (c,s) \in L^{2}(\Omega_{T}, \mathbb{R}^{2}) : \| U \|_{L^{\infty}(0,T; L^{2}(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^{2})) \cap L^{2}(0,T; H^{1}(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^{2}))} \leq C_{\mathcal{A}} \},$$
(2.3.8)

where $C_A > 0$ is a constant that will be defined below. With $(\bar{c}, \bar{s}) \in A$ fixed, let (c, s, u, ω, p) be the unique solution of the system in Ω_T

$$\begin{cases} c_t + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla_x c - \operatorname{div}_x \left[\left(D_c(\bar{c}) + 2 \, a_{11} \, f_{\varepsilon}^+(\bar{c}) + a_{12} \, f_{\varepsilon}^+(\bar{s}) \right) \nabla_x c + a_{12} \, f_{\varepsilon}^+(\bar{c}) \, \nabla_x s \right] = H_{c,\varepsilon}(\bar{c}^+, \bar{s}^+), \\ s_t + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla_x s - \operatorname{div}_x \left[\left(D_s(\bar{s}) + a_{21} \, f_{\varepsilon}^+(\bar{c}) + 2a_{22} \, f_{\varepsilon}^+(\bar{s}) \right) \nabla_x s + a_{21} \, f_{\varepsilon}^+(\bar{s}) \, \nabla_x c \right] = H_{s,\varepsilon}(\bar{c}^+, \bar{s}^+), \\ \mathbb{K}^{-1}\boldsymbol{u} + \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{\mathbf{curl}} \boldsymbol{\omega} + \nabla_x p = Q(\bar{c}, \bar{s})\boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F}, \quad \boldsymbol{\omega} - \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{\mathbf{curl}} \boldsymbol{u} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \operatorname{div}_x \boldsymbol{u} = 0. \end{cases}$$

$$(2.3.9)$$

2.3.3 The fixed-point method

Now, we introduce a map L : $A \to A$ such that $L(\bar{c}, \bar{s}) = (c, s)$, where (c, s) solve (2.3.9). By using the Schauder fixed-point theorem, we prove that the map L have a fixed point for (2.3.9).

We start with the following result where the proof can be found in [50] Theorem 1.3:

Theorem 2.3.2 Let $(\mathcal{X}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{\mathcal{X}})$ be a Hilbert space. Let $\mathcal{A} : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded symmetric bilinear form, and let $\mathcal{G} : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded functional. Assume that there exists $\bar{\beta} > 0$ such that

$$\sup_{\substack{y \in \mathcal{X} \\ y \neq 0}} \frac{\mathcal{A}(x,y)}{\|y\|_{\mathcal{X}}} \geq \bar{\beta} \, \|x\|_{\mathcal{X}} \quad \forall \, x \in \mathcal{X}.$$

Then, there exists a unique $x \in \mathcal{X}$ *, such that*

$$\mathcal{A}(x,y) = \mathcal{G}(y) \quad \forall y \in \mathcal{X}.$$

Moreover, there exists C > 0, independent of the solution, such that

$$\|x\|_{\mathcal{X}} \le C \|\mathcal{G}\|_{\mathcal{X}'}$$

Observe that from Brinkman equation in (2.3.9) we solve the following problem: Find $(u, \omega) \in X \times H(\operatorname{curl}; \Omega)$ such that

$$\int_{\Omega} \mathbb{K}^{-1} \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} + \sqrt{\mu} \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{\mathbf{curl}} \boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} = \int_{\Omega} (Q(\bar{c}, \bar{s})\boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}, \qquad \forall \mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{X},$$
$$\sqrt{\mu} \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{\mathbf{curl}} \boldsymbol{z} \cdot \boldsymbol{u} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \boldsymbol{z} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} = 0, \qquad \forall \boldsymbol{z} \in \mathbf{H}_{0}(\operatorname{\mathbf{curl}}; \Omega).$$

Next we exploit Theorem 2.3.2 and we work exactly as in the proofs of [1, Theorem 2.2 and Corollary 2.1] to get the following lemma for a fixed $(\bar{c}, \bar{s}) \in A$ and for any t > 0.

Lemma 2.3.1 Assume that $(\overline{c}, \overline{s}) \in A$. Then, the variational problem

$$\int_{\Omega} \mathbb{K}^{-1} \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} + \sqrt{\mu} \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Omega} p \operatorname{div}_{\boldsymbol{x}} \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} = \int_{\Omega} (Q(\bar{c}, \bar{s})\boldsymbol{g} + \boldsymbol{F}) \cdot \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x},$$
$$\sqrt{\mu} \int_{\Omega} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{z} \cdot \boldsymbol{u} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} - \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{\omega} \cdot \boldsymbol{z} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} = 0,$$
$$(2.3.10)$$
$$- \int_{\Omega} q \operatorname{div}_{\boldsymbol{x}} \boldsymbol{u} \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} = 0,$$

admits a unique solution $(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{\omega}, p) \in \mathbf{H}(\operatorname{div}; \Omega) \times \mathbf{H}(\operatorname{curl}; \Omega) \times L^2_0(\Omega)$. Moreover, there exists C > 0 independent of μ such that

$$\|u\|_{\mathbf{H}(\operatorname{div};\Omega)} + \|\omega\|_{\mathbf{H}(\operatorname{curl};\Omega)} + \|p\|_{0,\Omega} \le C\left((1 + \|\bar{c}\|_{0,\Omega} + \|\bar{s}\|_{0,\Omega})\|g\|_{\infty,\Omega} + \|F\|_{0,\Omega} + \|u_{\partial}\|_{-1/2,\partial\Omega} + \|\omega_{\partial}\|_{-1/2,\partial\Omega}\right).$$

$$(2.3.11)$$

Now, let us show that L is a continuous mapping. For this, letting $(\bar{c}_{\ell}, \bar{s}_{\ell})_{\ell}$ be sequence in \mathcal{A} . Next, we let $(\bar{c}, \bar{s}) \in \mathcal{A}$ be such that $(\bar{c}_{\ell}, \bar{s}_{\ell})_{\ell} \to (\bar{c}, \bar{s})$ in $L^2(\Omega_T, \mathbb{R}^2)$ as $\ell \to \infty$. Define $(c_{\ell}, s_{\ell}) = L(\bar{c}_{\ell}, \bar{s}_{\ell})$. The goal is to show that (c_{ℓ}, s_{ℓ}) converges to $L(\bar{c}, \bar{s})$ in $L^2(\Omega_T, \mathbb{R}^3)$. Next, we need the following lemma:

Lemma 2.3.2 The solution (c_{ℓ}, s_{ℓ}) to system (2.3.9) satisfies:

- (*i*) The sequence $(c_{\ell}, s_{\ell})_{\ell}$ is bounded in $L^2(0, T; H^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2)) \cap L^{\infty}(0, T; L^2(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2))$.
- (*ii*) The sequence $(c_{\ell}, s_{\ell})_{\ell}$ is relatively compact in $L^2(\Omega_T, \mathbb{R}^3)$.

Proof 2.3.1 (*i*) We multiply the first and the second in (2.3.9) by c_{ℓ} and s_{ℓ} respectively, integrate over Ω and using the uniform nonnegativity of $M(\bar{c}_{\ell}, \bar{s}_{\ell})$, yields

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \left(|c_{\ell}|^{2} + |s_{\ell}|^{2} \right) d\mathbf{x} + D^{\min} \int_{\Omega} \left(|\nabla_{x}c_{\ell}|^{2} + |\nabla_{x}s_{\ell}|^{2} \right) d\mathbf{x} \\ &+ \int_{\Omega} \left[2a_{11} |\nabla_{x}c_{\ell}|^{2} + a_{12} \nabla_{x}c_{\ell} \cdot \nabla s_{\ell} + a_{21} |\nabla s_{\ell}|^{2} \right] f_{\varepsilon}^{+}(c_{\ell}) d\mathbf{x} \\ &+ \int_{\Omega} \left[a_{12} |\nabla_{x}c_{\ell}|^{2} + a_{21} \nabla_{x}c_{\ell} \cdot \nabla_{x}s_{\ell} + 2a_{22} |\nabla_{x}s_{\ell}|^{2} \right] f_{\varepsilon}^{+}(s_{\ell}) d\mathbf{x} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Omega} \left(|c_{\ell}|^{2} + |s_{\ell}|^{2} \right) d\mathbf{x} + D^{\min} \int_{\Omega} \left(|\nabla_{x}c_{\ell}|^{2} + |\nabla_{x}s_{\ell}|^{2} \right) d\mathbf{x} \\ &+ \int_{\Omega} (\nabla_{x}c_{\ell}, \nabla_{x}s_{\ell})^{T} M(c_{\ell}, s_{\ell}) \left(\nabla_{x}c_{\ell}, \nabla_{x}s_{\ell} \right) d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\Omega} H_{c,\varepsilon}(\overline{c}_{\ell}^{+}, \overline{s}_{\ell}^{+})c_{\ell} d\mathbf{x} + \int_{\Omega} H_{s,\varepsilon}(\overline{c}_{\ell}^{+}, \overline{s}_{\ell}^{+})s_{\ell} d\mathbf{x} \\ &\leq C \int_{\Omega} \left(|c_{\ell}|^{2} + |s_{\ell}|^{2} \right) d\mathbf{x}, \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.3.12)$$

for some constant C > 0. Herein, we have used assumption (2.3.2) and

$$\int_{\Omega} c_{\ell} \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} c_{\ell} \, \mathrm{d} \mathbf{x} + \int_{\Omega} s_{\ell} \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} s_{\ell} \, \mathrm{d} \mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} (c_{\ell})^2 \, \mathrm{d} \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} (s_{\ell})^2 \, \mathrm{d} \mathbf{x} = 0.$$

In view of (2.3.5) (recall that the matrix $M(c_{\ell}, s_{\ell})$ is nonnegative under condition (2.3.5)) and Gronwall's inequality it follows from (2.3.12) that,

$$\sup_{t \in (0,T)} \int_{\Omega} (|c_{\ell}|^2 + |s_{\ell}|^2) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} \le \exp(CT) \|c_0 + s_0\|_{\mathrm{L}^2(\Omega)}, \tag{2.3.13}$$

which proves the first part of (i).

From (2.3.12) and (2.3.13) we may also conclude that,

$$\int \int_{\Omega_T} (|\nabla_x c_\ell|^2 + |\nabla_x s_\ell|^2) \, \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} \, \mathrm{d}t \le \frac{T \exp(CT)}{D^{\min}} \|c_0 + s_0\|_{\mathrm{L}^2(\Omega)}, \tag{2.3.14}$$

yielding (i).

(*ii*) Finally multiplying the first, the second and the third equation (2.3.9) by $\varphi_c, \varphi_s \in L^2(0, T; H^1(\Omega))$, respectively and using the boundedness of f_{ε}^+ , $H_{c,\varepsilon}$, $H_{s,\varepsilon}$, and (2.3.14) there exists a constant $C(\varepsilon) > 0$ such that

$$\left|\int_{0}^{T} \left\langle \partial_{t} c_{\ell}, \varphi_{c} \right\rangle \, \mathrm{d}t \right| + \left|\int_{0}^{T} \left\langle \partial_{t} s_{\ell}, \varphi_{s} \right\rangle \, \mathrm{d}t \right| \leq C(\varepsilon) \left(\left\| \varphi_{c} \right\|_{\mathrm{L}^{2}(0,T;\mathrm{H}^{1}(\Omega))} + \left\| \varphi_{s} \right\|_{\mathrm{L}^{2}(0,T;\mathrm{H}^{1}(\Omega))} \right), \quad (2.3.15)$$

so we get (ii). Then, (ii) is a consequence of (i) and the uniform boundedness (2.3.15) of $(c_{\ell}, s_{\ell})_{\ell}$ in $L^2(0, T; (H^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2))')$

Remark 2.3.2 Note that it is easy to deduce from Lemma 2.3.2 that the constant $C_A > 0$ (consult (2.3.8)) *is defined as follows:*

$$C_{\mathcal{A}} = \frac{(D^{\min} + T) \exp(CT)}{D^{\min}} \|c_0 + s_0\|_{L^2(\Omega)}$$

for some constant C > 0.

From Lemma 2.3.2, there exist functions $(c_{\ell}, s_{\ell}) \in L^2(0, T; H^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2))$ such that, up to extracting subsequences if necessary,

$$(c_{\ell}, s_{\ell}) \to (c, s)$$
 in $(L^2(\Omega_T))^2$ strongly,

and from this the continuity of L on A follows. We observe that, from Lemma 2.3.2, L(A) is bounded in the set

$$\mathcal{E} = \left\{ u \in L^2(0, T; H^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2)) : \partial_t u \in L^2(0, T; (H^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2))') \right\}.$$
 (2.3.16)

By a standard Aubin-Lions-Simon compactness lemma (see for e.g. [85], Theorem 5 or [74]), $\mathcal{E} \hookrightarrow L^2(\Omega_T, \mathbb{R}^2)$ is compact, thus L is compact. Now, by the Schauder fixed point theorem, the operator L has a fixed point $(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon})$ such that $L(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon}) = (c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon})$. Then there exists a solution $(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon}, \boldsymbol{u}_{\varepsilon}, \boldsymbol{\omega}_{\varepsilon}, p_{\varepsilon})$ of

$$\int_{0}^{T} \langle \partial_{t} c_{\varepsilon}, \varphi_{c} \rangle \, \mathrm{d}t + \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \Big[\left(D_{c}(c_{\varepsilon}) + 2 \, a_{11} \, f_{\varepsilon}^{+}(c_{\varepsilon}) + a_{12} \, f_{\varepsilon}^{+}s_{\varepsilon} \right) \right) \nabla_{x} c_{\varepsilon} + a_{12} \, f_{\varepsilon}^{+}(c_{\varepsilon}) \nabla_{x} s \\ - c_{\varepsilon} u_{\varepsilon} \Big] \cdot \nabla_{x} \varphi_{c} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t = \iint_{\Omega_{T}} H_{c,\varepsilon}(c_{\varepsilon}^{+}, s_{\varepsilon}^{+}) \varphi_{c} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t, \\ \int_{0}^{T} \langle \partial_{t} s_{\varepsilon}, \varphi_{s} \rangle \, \mathrm{d}t + \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \Big[\left(D_{s}(s_{\varepsilon}) + a_{21} \, f_{\varepsilon}^{+}(c_{\varepsilon}) + 2 a_{22} \, f_{\varepsilon}^{+}(s_{\varepsilon}) \right) \nabla_{x} s_{\varepsilon} + a_{21} \, f_{\varepsilon}^{+}(s_{\varepsilon}) \nabla_{x} c_{\varepsilon} \\ - c_{\varepsilon} u_{\varepsilon} \Big] \cdot \nabla_{x} \varphi_{s} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t = \iint_{\Omega_{T}} H_{s,\varepsilon}(c_{\varepsilon}^{+}, s_{\varepsilon}^{+}) \varphi_{s} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t, \\ \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \mathbb{K}^{-1} u_{\varepsilon} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t + \sqrt{\mu} \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \mathbf{curl} \, \omega_{\varepsilon} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t - \iint_{\Omega_{T}} p_{\varepsilon} \, \mathrm{div}_{x} \, \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t \\ = \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \left(Q(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon}) g + \mathbf{F} \right) \cdot \mathbf{v} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t, \\ \sqrt{\mu} \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \mathbf{curl} \, z \cdot u_{\varepsilon} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t - \iint_{\Omega_{T}} \omega_{\varepsilon} \cdot z \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t = 0, \\ - \iint_{\Omega_{T}} q \, \mathrm{div}_{x} \, u_{\varepsilon} \, \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}t = 0, \end{aligned}$$

for all φ_c , $\varphi_s \in L^2(0, T; H^1(\Omega))$, $\mathbf{v} \in L^2(0, T; \mathbf{H}_0(\operatorname{div}; \Omega))$, $z \in L^2(0, T; \mathbf{H}_0(\operatorname{curl}; \Omega))$, $q \in L^{2}(0,T; L^{2}_{0}(\Omega)).$

2.3.4 Existence of weak solutions

Note that from Subsection 2.3.3, we know there exist sequences $(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon}, u_{\varepsilon}, \omega_{\varepsilon}, p_{\varepsilon})_{\varepsilon>0}$ solution to (2.3.7). We have now the following series of a priori estimates.

Lemma 2.3.3 Assume conditions (2.3.1), (2.3.2) and (2.3.5) hold. If $c_0, s_0 \in L^2_+(\Omega)$ then the solution $(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon}, u_{\varepsilon}, \omega_{\varepsilon}, p_{\varepsilon})$ is nonnegative. Moreover, there exist constants $c_1, \ldots, c_5 > 0$ not depending on ε such that

$$\|(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon})\|_{\mathcal{L}^{\infty}(0,T; \mathcal{L}^{2}(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^{2}))} \le c_{1},$$
(2.3.18)

$$\|(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon})\|_{L^{\infty}(0,T;L^{2}(\Omega,\mathbb{R}^{2}))} \leq c_{1},$$

$$\|H_{c,\varepsilon}(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon})\|_{L^{1}(\Omega_{T})} + \|H_{s,\varepsilon}(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon})\|_{L^{1}(\Omega_{T})} \leq c_{2},$$
(2.3.19)

$$\|\nabla_{x}c_{\varepsilon}\|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})}+\|\nabla_{x}s_{\varepsilon}\|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})}\leq c_{3},$$
(2.3.20)

$$\|\boldsymbol{u}_{\varepsilon}\|_{\mathbf{H}(\operatorname{div};\Omega)} + \|\boldsymbol{\omega}_{\varepsilon}\|_{\mathbf{H}(\operatorname{curl};\Omega)} + \|\boldsymbol{p}_{\varepsilon}\|_{0,\Omega} \le c_{4},$$
(2.3.21)

$$\|\partial_t c_{\varepsilon}\|_{L^2(0,T;(W^{1,\infty}(\Omega))')} + \|\partial_t s_{\varepsilon}\|_{L^2(0,T;(W^{1,\infty}(\Omega))')} \le c_5.$$
(2.3.22)

Proof.

In the weak formulation (2.3.17) we take $\varphi_c = -c_{\varepsilon}^-$, $\varphi_s = -s_{\varepsilon}^-$, and we integrate over Ω instead Ω_T , we get from (2.3.2) and (2.3.5)

$$\frac{1}{2}\frac{d}{dt}\int_{\Omega} \left(\left|c_{\varepsilon}^{-}\right|^{2} + \left|s_{\varepsilon}^{-}\right|^{2}\right) \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} \le 0.$$
(2.3.23)

Herein, we used

$$-\int_{\Omega} c_{\varepsilon}^{-} \boldsymbol{u}_{\varepsilon} \cdot \nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} c_{\varepsilon} \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} - \int_{\Omega} s_{\varepsilon}^{-} \boldsymbol{u}_{\varepsilon} \cdot \nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} s_{\varepsilon} \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{u}_{\varepsilon} \cdot \nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} (c_{\varepsilon}^{-})^{2} \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{u}_{\varepsilon} \cdot \nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} (s_{\varepsilon}^{-})^{2} \, \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} = 0.$$

This yields the nonnegativity of $(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon})$.

By the (weak) lower semicontinuity properties of norms, the estimates (2.3.13) and (2.3.14) hold with (c_{ℓ}, c_{ℓ}) replaced by $(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon})$. Moreover, the constants c_1, c_3 are independent of ε (consult the proof of Lemma 2.3.2). Observe that for j = c, s

$$|H_{j,\varepsilon}(c_{\varepsilon},s_{\varepsilon})| \leq C(|c_{\varepsilon}|^2 + |s_{\varepsilon}|^2).$$

for some constant C > 0. Using this, (2.3.19) is a consequence of (2.3.18). Next, we use (2.3.18) and Lemma 2.3.1 to deduce (2.3.21). Finally using the weak formulation (2.3.17), we deduce from (2.3.18) and (2.3.20): for all $\varphi_c \in L^2(0, T; W^{1,\infty}(\Omega))$

$$\begin{split} \left| \int_{0}^{1} \langle \partial_{t} c_{\varepsilon}, \varphi_{c} \rangle \, dt \right| \\ &\leq D^{\max} \| \nabla_{x} c_{\varepsilon} \|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} \| \nabla_{x} \varphi_{c} \|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} + \| c_{\varepsilon} \|_{L^{\infty}(0,T;L^{2}(\Omega))} \| u_{\ell} \|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} \| \nabla_{x} \varphi_{c} \|_{L^{2}(0,T;W^{1,\infty}(\Omega))} \\ &+ C \Big(\| c_{\varepsilon} \|_{L^{\infty}(0,T;L^{2}(\Omega))} + \| s_{\varepsilon} \|_{L^{\infty}(0,T;L^{2}(\Omega))} \Big) \\ &\times \Big(u_{\ell} + \| \nabla_{x} s_{\varepsilon} \|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} \Big) \| \nabla_{x} \varphi_{c} \|_{L^{2}(0,T;L^{\infty}(\Omega))} \\ &+ C' \Big(1 + \| c_{\varepsilon} \|_{L^{\infty}(0,T;L^{2}(\Omega))} + \| s_{\varepsilon} \|_{L^{\infty}(0,T;L^{2}(\Omega))} \Big) \\ &\times \Big(1 + \| c_{\varepsilon} \|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} + \| s_{\varepsilon} \|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} \Big) \| \varphi_{c} \|_{L^{2}(0,T;L^{\infty}(\Omega))} \\ &\leq C'' \| \varphi_{c} \|_{L^{2}(0,T;W^{1,\infty}(\Omega))'} \end{split}$$

for some constant C, C', C'' > 0 independent of ε . From this we deduce the bound

$$\|\partial_t c_{\varepsilon}\|_{L^2(0,T;(W^{1,\infty}(\Omega))')} \le C''.$$
(2.3.25)

Reasoning along the same lines for c_{ε} yields (2.3.25) for s_{ε} .

In view of Lemma 2.3.3 and Aubin-Lions-Simon compactness lemma, we can assume there exist limit functions (c, s) such that as $\varepsilon \to 0$ the following convergences hold (modulo extraction of subsequences, which we do not bother to relabel):

$$\begin{aligned} &(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon}) \to (c, s) \text{ a.e. in } \Omega_{T}, \text{ strongly in } L^{2}(\Omega_{T}, \mathbb{R}^{2}) \text{ and weakly in } L^{2}(0, T; H^{1}(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^{2})), \\ &H_{j,\varepsilon}(c_{\varepsilon}, s_{\varepsilon}) \to H_{j,c}(c, s) \text{ a.e. in } \Omega_{T} \text{ and strongly in } L^{1}(\Omega_{T}), \\ &u_{\varepsilon} \to u \text{ weakly in } L^{2}(0, T; H_{0}(\operatorname{div}; \Omega)), \\ &\omega_{\varepsilon} \to \omega \text{ weakly in } L^{2}(0, T; H_{0}(\operatorname{curl}; \Omega)), \\ &p_{\varepsilon} \to p \text{ weakly in } L^{2}(0, T; L^{2}_{0}(\Omega)). \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.3.26)$$

(2.3.24)

for j = c, s. Additionally, $(\partial_t c_{\varepsilon}, \partial_t s_{\varepsilon}) \to (\partial_t c, \partial_t s)$ weakly in $L^2(0, T; (W^{1,\infty}(\Omega, \mathbb{R}^2))')$ as $\varepsilon \to 0$. An application of Young and Hölder inequalities we get

$$\begin{aligned} \|f_{\varepsilon}(c_{\varepsilon}) - c\|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} &\leq \sqrt{2} \|c_{\varepsilon} - c\|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} + \sqrt{2} \|\frac{\varepsilon c_{\varepsilon} c}{1 + \varepsilon c_{\varepsilon}}\|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} \\ &\leq \sqrt{2} \|c_{\varepsilon} - c\|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} + \sqrt{2} \|\frac{\varepsilon c_{\varepsilon} c}{(1 + \varepsilon c_{\varepsilon})^{2/3} (\varepsilon c_{\varepsilon})^{1 - 2/3}}\|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} \\ &\leq \sqrt{2} \|c_{\varepsilon} - c\|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} + \sqrt{2} \varepsilon^{2/3} \|c_{\varepsilon}^{2/3} c\|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} \\ &\leq \sqrt{2} \|c_{\varepsilon} - c\|_{L^{2}(\Omega_{T})} + \sqrt{2} \varepsilon^{2/3} \|c_{\varepsilon}\|_{L^{\infty}(0,T;L^{2}(\Omega))} \\ &\qquad \times \|c\|_{L^{2}(0,T;L^{6}(\Omega))}. \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.3.27)$$

Thanks to the Sobolev embedding ($H^1(\Omega) \subset L^6(\Omega)$) we deduce from (2.3.27)

$$f_{\varepsilon}(c_{\varepsilon}) \to c \text{ a.e. in } \Omega_T \text{ and strongly in } L^2(\Omega_T).$$
 (2.3.28)

In the same way we get

$$f_{\varepsilon}(s_{\varepsilon}) \to s \text{ a.e. in } \Omega_T \text{ and strongly in } L^2(\Omega_T).$$
 (2.3.29)

Finally, by passing to the limit $\varepsilon \to 0$ in the weak formulation (2.3.17), with $\varphi_c, \varphi_s \in L^2(0, T; W^{1,\infty}(\Omega))$, $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbf{L}^2(0, T; \mathbf{H}_0(\operatorname{div}; \Omega)), \mathbf{z} \in \mathbf{L}^2(0, T; \mathbf{H}_0(\operatorname{curl}; \Omega))$ and $q \in L^2(0, T; \mathbf{L}_0^2(\Omega))$, we obtain in this way that the limit (c, s, u, ω, p) is a solution of system problem (2.1.3) in the sense of Definition 2.3.1.

2.4 Numerical analysis of micro-macro cross-diffusion-Brinkman system

In this section we develop an asymptotic preserving scheme (AP). We propose a numerical scheme uniformly stable along the transition from kinetic to macroscopic regimes. Inspired by the continuous derivation, we use the time semi-implicit discretization for the micro-macro formulation (2.2.17) which is equivalent to the kinetic-fluid model (2.2.1). After the full discretization of (2.2.17), we show various numerical tests to validate the proposed approach.

2.4.1 A time semi-implicit discretization

First, we present a time discretization to our coupled system (2.2.17). We denote by Δt a fixed time step and by $t_k := k\Delta t$ a discrete time with $k \in \mathbb{N}$. The approximations of c(t, x), s(t, x), $g_1(t, x, \xi)$, $g_2(t, x, \xi)$, u(t, x), $\omega(t, x)$ and p(t, x) at the time step t_k are denoted by $c^k := c(t_k, x)$, $s^k := s(t_k, x)$, $g_i^k := g_i(t_k, x, \xi)$, $u^k := u(t_k, x)$, $\omega^k := \omega(t_k, x)$ and $p^k := p(t_k, x)$ for i = 1, 2. The semi-implicit scheme for microscopic equations in system (2.2.17) reads

$$\begin{cases} \frac{g_{1}^{k+1} - g_{1}^{k}}{\Delta t} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{2}} \xi M_{1} \cdot \nabla_{x} c^{k} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} (I - P_{M_{1}}) (\xi \cdot \nabla_{x} g_{1}^{k}) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{2}} \mathcal{L}_{1}(g_{1}^{k+1}) \\ + \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{2}} \mathcal{T}_{1}^{2} [M_{2}(\xi) s^{k}] (M_{1}(\xi) c^{k}) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{T}_{1}^{2} [M_{2}(\xi) s^{k}] (g_{1}^{k}) \\ + \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{2}} G_{11} (M_{1}(\xi) c^{k}, M_{2}(\xi) s^{k}, u^{k}, \xi) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} (I - P_{M_{1}}) G_{12} (M_{1}(\xi) c^{k}, M_{2}(\xi) s^{k}, \xi), \\ \frac{g_{2}^{k+1} - g_{2}^{k}}{\Delta t} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{2}} \xi M_{2} \cdot \nabla_{x} s^{k} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} (I - P_{M_{2}}) (\xi \cdot \nabla_{x} g_{2}^{k}) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{2}} \mathcal{L}_{2}(g_{2}^{k+1}) \\ + \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{2}} \mathcal{T}_{2}^{2} [M_{1}(\xi) c^{k}] (M_{2}(\xi) s^{k}) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathcal{T}_{2}^{2} [M_{1}(\xi) c^{k}] (g_{2}^{k}) \\ + \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{2}} G_{21} (M_{1}(\xi) c^{k}, M_{2}(\xi) s^{k}, u^{k}, \xi) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} (I - P_{M_{2}}) G_{22} (M_{1}(\xi) c^{k}, M_{2}(\xi) s^{k}, \xi). \end{cases}$$

$$(2.4.1)$$

In the hydrodynamic equations of system (2.2.17), we take g_1 and g_2 at the time t_{k+1} . The result is

$$\begin{cases} \frac{c^{k+1}-c^k}{\Delta t} + \langle \boldsymbol{\xi} \cdot \nabla_x g_1^{k+1} \rangle = \langle G_{12}(M_1(\boldsymbol{\xi})c^k, M_2(\boldsymbol{\xi})s^k, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \rangle, \\ \frac{s^{k+1}-s^k}{\Delta t} + \langle \boldsymbol{\xi} \cdot \nabla_x g_2^{k+1} \rangle = \langle G_{22}(M_1(\boldsymbol{\xi})c^{k+1}, M_2(\boldsymbol{\xi})s^k, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \rangle. \\ \mathbb{K}^{-1}\boldsymbol{u}^{k+1} + \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{\omega}^{k+1} + \nabla_x p^{k+1} = Q(c^{k+1}, s^{k+1})\boldsymbol{g} + \mathbf{F}, \\ \boldsymbol{\omega}^{k+1} - \sqrt{\mu} \operatorname{curl} \boldsymbol{u}^{k+1} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \operatorname{div}_x \boldsymbol{u}^{k+1} = 0. \end{cases}$$

$$(2.4.2)$$

Proposition 2.4.1 *The numerical scheme given by* (2.4.1)*-(2.4.2) is consistent with equations* (2.2.25) *when* ε *goes to* 0.

Proof 2.4.1 The asymptotic behavior of scheme (2.4.1)-(2.4.2) is obtained similarly as the continuous case. Since the operator $-\mathcal{L}_i$ is self-adjoint and positive, the operator $(I - \frac{\Delta t}{\epsilon^2}\mathcal{L}_i)$ is also invertible for all $\Delta t \ge 0$ for i = 1, 2. Hence (2.4.1) gives

$$g_{1}^{k+1} = \left(I - \frac{\Delta t}{\epsilon^{2}}\mathcal{L}_{1}\right)^{-1} \left[g_{1}^{k} + \frac{\Delta t}{\epsilon^{2}} \left(\mathcal{T}_{1}^{2}[M_{2}s^{k}](M_{1}c^{k} + \epsilon g_{1}^{k}) + G_{11}(M_{1}c^{k}, M_{2}s^{k}, u^{k}, \xi) - \xi M_{1} \cdot \nabla_{x}c^{k}\right) + \frac{\Delta t}{\epsilon} (I - P_{M_{1}}) \left(G_{12}(M_{1}c^{k}, M_{2}s^{k}, \xi) - \xi \cdot \nabla_{x}g_{1}^{k}\right)\right]$$
(2.4.3)

and

$$g_{2}^{k+1} = \left(I - \frac{\Delta t}{\varepsilon^{2}}\mathcal{L}_{2}\right)^{-1} \left[g_{2}^{k} + \frac{\Delta t}{\varepsilon^{2}} \left(\mathcal{T}_{2}^{2}[M_{1}c^{k}](M_{2}(\xi)s^{k} + \varepsilon g_{2}^{k}) + G_{21}(M_{1}c^{k}, M_{2}s^{k}, u^{k}, \xi) - \xi M_{2} \cdot \nabla_{x}s^{k}\right) + \frac{\Delta t}{\varepsilon} (I - P_{M_{2}}) \left(G_{22}(M_{1}c^{k}, M_{2}s^{k}, \xi) - \xi \cdot \nabla_{x}g_{2}^{k}\right)\right].$$
(2.4.4)

We use the limited development with respect to ε to get $(I - \frac{\Delta t}{\varepsilon^2} \mathcal{L}_i)^{-1} = -\frac{\varepsilon^2}{\Delta t} \mathcal{L}_i^{-1} + O(\varepsilon^3)$, for i = 1, 2and the fact that \mathcal{L}_1 and \mathcal{L}_2 are linear and invertible. Then, we develop the right hand side of (2.4.3) and (2.4.4) with regard to ε when $\varepsilon \to 0$ and we take the same order of ε . We have:

$$g_1^{k+1} = \mathcal{L}_1^{-1} \left(\xi M_1 \cdot \nabla_x c^k - \mathcal{T}_1^2 [M_2 s^k] (M_1 c^k) - G_{11} (M_1 c^k, M_2 s^k, u^k, \xi) \right) + O(\varepsilon),$$

and

$$g_2^{k+1} = \mathcal{L}_2^{-1} \left(\xi M_2 \cdot \nabla_x s^k - \mathcal{T}_2^2 [M_1 c^k] (M_2 s^k) \right) - G_{21} (M_1 c^k, M_2 s^k, \boldsymbol{u}^k, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right) + O(\varepsilon).$$

Inserting g_1^{k+1} and g_2^{k+1} into (2.4.2), we obtain

$$\frac{c^{k+1} - c^{k}}{\Delta t} + \left\langle \xi \cdot \nabla_{x} \mathcal{L}_{1}^{-1} [\xi M_{1} \cdot \nabla_{x} c^{k} - \mathcal{T}_{1}^{2} [M_{2} s^{k}] (M_{1} c^{k}) - G_{11} (M_{1} c^{k}, M_{2} s^{k}, \boldsymbol{u}^{k}, \boldsymbol{\xi})] \right\rangle = \left\langle G_{12} (M_{1} c^{k}, M_{2} s^{k}, \boldsymbol{\xi}) \right\rangle + O(\varepsilon),$$
(2.4.5)

and

$$\frac{s^{k+1}-s^{k}}{\Delta t} + \left\langle \xi \cdot \nabla_{x} \mathcal{L}_{2}^{-1} [\xi M_{2} \cdot \nabla_{x} s^{k} - \mathcal{T}_{2}^{2} [M_{1} c^{k}] (M_{2} s^{k}) - G_{21} (M_{1} c^{k}, M_{2} s^{k}, \boldsymbol{u}^{k}, \xi)] \right\rangle$$

$$= \left\langle G_{22} (M_{1} c^{k+1}, M_{2} s^{k}, \xi) \right\rangle + O(\varepsilon),$$
(2.4.6)

which is consistent with system (2.2.25) when ε goes to 0.

2.4.2 Full discretization

In this subsection, we present our method in one-dimensional case into the domain [-a, a] for fixed $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $\mathbb{T} = \{K_j, j = 1, ..., N_x\}$ be an admissible mesh in the meaning of Definition 5.5 page 125 in Ref. [46]. The control volume is given by $K_j =]x_{j-\frac{1}{2}}, x_{j+\frac{1}{2}}[$ with $x_j = \frac{1}{2}(x_{j-\frac{1}{2}} + x_{j+\frac{1}{2}})$ and its length is denoted by $h_j = x_{j+\frac{1}{2}} - x_{j-\frac{1}{2}}$ for $j = 1, ..., N_x$. For the velocity space, we consider $\xi_\ell = \xi_{\min} + \ell \Delta \xi$, for $\ell = 0, ..., N_{\xi} - 1$ where $\Delta \xi = \frac{1}{N_{\xi}}(\xi_{\max} - \xi_{\min})$ with $\xi_{\max} = -\xi_{\min}$. We shall assume that $\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{F} = 0$. Thus, the fluid velocity is a given function depending only on time, namely $u(t) = \partial_x p$. The methodology is as follow: the macroscopic equations in (2.4.2) are computed in the control volume K_j while the microscopic equations in (2.4.1) should be computed in the interface of K_j . Precisely, the macroscopic densities are as follows

$$c(t_k, x)|_{K_i} \approx c_i^k, \qquad s(t_k, x)|_{K_i} \approx s_i^k,$$

and the microscopic ones are given by

$$g_1(t_k, x_{j+\frac{1}{2}}, \xi_\ell)|_{\partial K_j} \approx g_{1,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell'}^k \qquad g_2(t_k, x_{j+\frac{1}{2}}, \xi_\ell)|_{\partial K_j} \approx g_{2,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^k$$

for $j = 1, ..., N_x$ and $\ell = 1, ..., N_{\xi}$. Now, we integrate the macroscopic equations in (2.4.2) over the control volume K_j , we approximate the time derivatives by differential quotients and using an upwind choice for g_1 and g_2 to arrive to

$$\begin{cases} \frac{c_{j}^{k+1}-c_{j}^{k}}{\Delta t} + \left\langle \xi_{\ell} \frac{s_{1,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1} - s_{1,j-\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1}}{h_{j}} \right\rangle = \left\langle G_{12}(M_{1,\ell}c_{j}^{k}, M_{2,\ell}s_{j}^{k}, \xi_{\ell}) \right\rangle, \\ \frac{s_{j}^{k+1}-s_{j}^{k}}{\Delta t} + \left\langle \xi_{\ell} \frac{s_{2,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1} - s_{2,j-\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1}}{h_{j}} \right\rangle = \left\langle G_{22}(M_{1,\ell}c_{j}^{k+1}, M_{2,\ell}s_{j}^{k}, \xi_{\ell}) \right\rangle, \\ \frac{p_{j+1}^{k}-p_{j}^{k}}{h_{j}} = u^{k}. \end{cases}$$

$$(2.4.7)$$

For the microscopic equations in (2.4.1), we compute the unknowns functions g_1 and g_2 in the interface of K_j (or integrating over the control volume $I_{i+\frac{1}{2}}$):

$$\begin{cases} \frac{g_{1,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1} - g_{1,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k}}{\Delta t} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} (I - P_{M_{1,j}}) \left(\xi_{\ell}^{k} \frac{g_{1,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k} - g_{1,j-\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k}}{h_{j}} + \xi_{\ell}^{-} \frac{g_{1,j+\frac{3}{2},\ell}^{k} - g_{1,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k}}{h_{j}} \right) \\ = \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{2}} \left[\mathcal{L}_{1,\ell} (g_{1,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1}) - \xi_{\ell} M_{1,\ell} \frac{c_{j+1}^{k} - c_{j}^{k}}{h_{j}} + \mathcal{T}_{1,\ell}^{2} [M_{2,\ell} s_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}] (M_{1,\ell} c_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}) \right) \\ + G_{11,\ell} (M_{1,\ell} c_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, M_{2,\ell} s_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, u^{k}, \xi_{\ell}) \right] \\ + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left[\mathcal{T}_{1,\ell}^{2} [M_{2,\ell} s_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}] (g_{1,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k}) + (I - P_{M_{1,\ell}}) G_{12,\ell} (M_{1,\ell} c_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, M_{2,\ell} s_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, \xi_{\ell}) \right] \\ \frac{g_{2,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1} - g_{2,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k}}{\Delta t} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} (I - P_{M_{2,\ell}}) \left(\xi_{\ell}^{k} \frac{g_{2,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k} - g_{2,j-\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k}}{h_{j}} + \xi_{\ell}^{2} \frac{g_{2,j+\frac{3}{2},\ell}^{k} - g_{2,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k}}{h_{j}} \right) \\ = \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{2}} \left[\mathcal{L}_{2,\ell} (g_{2,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1}) - \xi_{\ell} M_{2,\ell} \frac{g_{j+1}^{k} - s_{j}^{k}}{h_{j}} + \mathcal{T}_{2,\ell}^{2} [M_{1,\ell} c_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}] (M_{2,\ell} s_{j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k}) \right] \\ + G_{21,\ell} (M_{1,\ell} c_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, M_{2,\ell} s_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, u^{k}, \xi_{\ell}) \right] \\ + \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left[\mathcal{T}_{2,\ell}^{2} [M_{1,\ell} c_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}] (g_{2,j+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k}) + (I - P_{M_{2,\ell}}) G_{22} (M_{1,\ell} c_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, M_{2,\ell} s_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, \xi_{\ell}) \right].$$

In the following proposition, we show that our scheme proposed in the micro-macro formulation (2.4.8)-(2.4.7) is uniformly stable along the transition from kinetic to macroscopic regimes.

Proposition 2.4.2 *The time and space approximations* (2.4.8)-(2.4.7) *of the micro-macro formulation in the limit* (ε goes to zero), satisfy the following discretization:

$$\frac{c_{j}^{k+1} - c_{j}^{k}}{\Delta t} + \frac{1}{h_{j}} \left\langle \xi_{\ell} \left[\mathcal{L}_{1,\ell}^{-1} \left(\xi_{\ell} M_{1,\ell} \frac{c_{j+1}^{k} - c_{j}^{k}}{h_{j}} \right) - \mathcal{L}_{1,\ell}^{-1} \left(\xi_{\ell} M_{1,\ell} \frac{c_{j}^{k} - c_{j-1}^{k}}{h_{j}} \right) \right] \right\rangle \\
+ \frac{1}{h_{j}} \left\langle \xi_{\ell} \left[\mathcal{L}_{1,\ell}^{-1} \left(\mathcal{T}_{1}^{2} [M_{2,\ell} s_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}] (M_{1,\ell} c_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}) \right) - \mathcal{L}_{1,\ell}^{-1} \left(\mathcal{T}_{1,\ell}^{2} [M_{2,\ell} s_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{k}] (M_{1,\ell} c_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{k}) \right) \right] \right\rangle \\
+ \frac{1}{h_{j}} \left\langle \xi_{\ell} \left[\mathcal{L}_{1,\ell}^{-1} \left(G_{11,\ell} (M_{1,\ell} c_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, M_{2,\ell} s_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, u^{k}, \xi_{\ell}) \right) \right) - \mathcal{L}_{1,\ell}^{-1} \left(G_{11,\ell} (M_{1,\ell} c_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, M_{2,\ell} s_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, u^{k}, \xi_{\ell}) \right) \right) \right] \right\rangle \\
= \left\langle G_{12,\ell} (M_{1,\ell} c_{j}^{k}, M_{2,\ell} s_{j}^{k}, \xi_{\ell}) \right\rangle + O(\varepsilon), \tag{2.4.9}$$

and

$$\frac{s_{j}^{k+1} - s_{j}^{k}}{\Delta t} + \frac{1}{h_{j}} \left\langle \xi_{\ell} \left[\mathcal{L}_{2,\ell}^{-1} \left(\xi_{\ell} M_{2,\ell} \frac{s_{j+1}^{k} - s_{j}^{k}}{h_{j}} \right) - \mathcal{L}_{2,\ell}^{-1} \left(\xi_{\ell} M_{2,\ell} \frac{s_{j}^{k} - s_{j-1}^{k}}{h_{j}} \right) \right] \right\rangle \\
+ \frac{1}{h_{j}} \left\langle \xi_{\ell} \left[\mathcal{L}_{2,\ell}^{-1} \left(\mathcal{T}_{2,\ell}^{2} \left[M_{1,\ell} c_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k} \right] (M_{2,\ell} s_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}) \right) - \mathcal{L}_{2,\ell}^{-1} \left(\mathcal{T}_{2,\ell}^{2} \left[M_{1,\ell} c_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{k} \right] (M_{2,\ell} s_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{k}) \right) \right] \right\rangle \\
+ \frac{1}{h_{j}} \left\langle \xi_{\ell} \left[\mathcal{L}_{2,\ell}^{-1} \left(G_{21,\ell} (M_{1,\ell} c_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, M_{2,\ell} s_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, u^{k}, \xi_{\ell}) \right) \right) - \mathcal{L}_{2,\ell}^{-1} \left(G_{21,\ell} (M_{1,\ell} c_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, M_{2,\ell} s_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{k}, u^{k}, \xi_{\ell}) \right) \right) \right] \right\rangle \\
= \left\langle G_{22,\ell} (M_{2,\ell} c_{j}^{k+1}, M_{2,\ell} s_{j}^{k}, \xi_{\ell}) \right\rangle + O(\varepsilon), \tag{2.4.10}$$

which is consistent with system (2.2.25).

2.4.3 Boundary conditions

For the numerical solution of the kinetic equation (2.2.1), the following inflow boundary conditions are usually prescribe for the distribution functions f_1 and f_2 :

$$f_i(t, x_{\min}, \xi) = f_{i,l}(\xi), \quad \xi > 0 \qquad f_i(t, x_{\max}, \xi) = f_{i,r}(\xi), \quad \xi < 0, \text{ for } i = 1, 2.$$

We shall denote $w_1 = c$ and $w_2 = s$. The inflow boundary conditions can be rewritten in the micro-macro formulation by

$$\begin{split} w_i(t,x_0)M_i &+ \frac{\varepsilon}{2}(g_i(t,x_{\frac{1}{2}},\xi) + g_i(t,x_{-\frac{1}{2}},\xi)) = f_{i,l}(\xi), \quad \xi > 0, \\ w_i(t,x_{N_x})M_i &+ \frac{\varepsilon}{2}(g_i(t,x_{N_x+\frac{1}{2}},v) + g_i(t,x_{N_x-\frac{1}{2}},\xi)) = f_{i,r}(\xi), \quad \xi < 0, \end{split}$$

for i = 1, 2. For the other velocities, we consider the following artificial Neumann boundary conditions:

$$\begin{split} g_i(t, x_{\frac{1}{2}}, \xi_{\ell}) &= g_i(t, x_{-\frac{1}{2}}, \xi_{\ell}), \quad \xi_{\ell} < 0, \\ g_i(t, x_{N_x + \frac{1}{2}}, \xi_{\ell}) &= g_i(t, x_{N_x - \frac{1}{2}}, \xi_{\ell}), \quad \xi_{\ell} > 0, \end{split}$$

for i = 1, 2. Furthermore, the ghost points can be computed for i = 1, 2 as follows:

$$g_{i,-\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1} = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{\varepsilon} (f_{1,l}(\xi_{\ell}) - w_{i,0}^{k+1}M_{i}) - g_{i,\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1}, & \xi_{\ell} > 0, \\ g_{i,\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1}, & \xi_{\ell} < 0; \end{cases}$$

$$g_{i,N_{x}+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1} \begin{cases} \frac{2}{\varepsilon} (f_{i,r}(\xi_{\ell}) - w_{i,N_{x}}^{k+1}M_{i}) - g_{i,N_{x}-\frac{1}{2}}^{k+1}, & \xi_{\ell} < 0, \\ g_{i,N_{x}+\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1}, & \xi_{\ell} > 0. \end{cases}$$

$$(2.4.12)$$

It then follows from (2.4.7) that for i = 1, 2:

$$\begin{pmatrix} (1 + \frac{2\Delta t}{\varepsilon h_{0}} < \xi_{\ell}^{+} M_{i,\ell} >) w_{i,0}^{k+1} = w_{i,0}^{k} - \frac{\Delta t}{h_{0}} \langle (\xi_{\ell} + \xi_{\ell}^{+} - \xi_{\ell}^{-}) g_{i,\frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1} - \frac{2\xi_{\ell}^{+}}{\varepsilon} f_{i,l}(\xi_{\ell}) \rangle \\ + \Delta t \langle G_{i2,\ell}(M_{1,\ell}c_{0}^{k}, M_{2,\ell}s_{0}^{k}) \rangle, \\ (1 - \frac{2\Delta t}{\varepsilon h_{N_{x}}} < \xi_{\ell}^{-} M_{i,\ell} >) w_{i,N_{x}}^{k+1} = w_{i,N_{x}}^{k} - \frac{\Delta t}{h_{N_{x}}} \langle \frac{2\xi_{\ell}^{-}}{\varepsilon} f_{i,r}(\xi_{\ell}) - (\xi_{\ell} - \xi_{\ell}^{+} + \xi_{\ell}^{-}) g_{i,N_{x} - \frac{1}{2},\ell}^{k+1} \rangle \\ + \Delta t \langle G_{i2,\ell}(M_{1,\ell}c_{N_{x}}^{k}, M_{2,\ell}s_{N_{x}}^{k}) \rangle.$$

$$(2.4.13)$$

2.4.4 Numerical results

In this subsection, we present some numerical experiments in order to validate our approach. In the following tests, the computational domain in space is [-1;1] while the velocity space is V = [-1;1] with 64 discrete points, which yields good enough accuracy for numerical results [29]. We adopt a set of parameters, namely the coefficients of intra- and inter-specific competition, used in the book by [84] (adopted also by [6]): $a_1 = 0.61/year$, $a_2 = 0.82/year$, $b_1 = 0.4575$, $b_2 = 0.31$, $d_1 = 9.5$ and $d_2 = 8.2$. The diffusion coefficients are constants ($D_c = 1$ and $D_s = 1$). Moreover, we consider $a_{11} = a_{22} = 0.5$ and $a_{12} = a_{21} = 1$ which satisfy the conditions (2.3.5). The initial densities correspond to the *c*-predator species and the *s*-prey species are given by

$$c_0(x) = 0.65$$
 and $s_0(x) = \exp(-30x^2)$.

The initial cell distribution function is as follow

$$f_1(0; x; \xi) = c_0(x)M_1(\xi)$$
 and $f_2(0; x; \xi) = s_0(x)M_2(\xi)$,

where $M_i(\xi) = \frac{1}{|V|}$ for i = 1, 2. Next, we consider the macroscopic cross-diffusion-Brinkman system in one dimension. We discretize this system by using finite volume method

$$\begin{cases} \frac{c_{j}^{k+1} - c_{j}^{k}}{\Delta t} = D_{c} \left(\frac{c_{j+1}^{k} - c_{j}^{k}}{h_{j}h_{i+\frac{1}{2}}} - \frac{c_{j}^{k} - c_{j-1}^{k}}{h_{i-\frac{1}{2}}h_{j}} \right) - \frac{(\partial_{x}^{(m)}c_{j+1}^{k})(c+s)_{j+1}^{k} - (\partial_{x}^{(m)}c_{j-1}^{k})(c+s)_{j-1}^{k}}{h_{j}} \\ - \frac{c_{j+1}^{k} - c_{j}^{k}}{h_{j}}u^{k} + 2\frac{(\partial_{x}^{(m)}s_{j+1}^{k})c_{j+1}^{k} - (\partial_{x}^{(m)}s_{j-1}^{k})c_{j-1}^{k}}{h_{j}} + H_{1}(c_{j}^{k}, s_{j}^{k}), \\ \frac{s_{j}^{k+1} - s_{j}^{k}}{\Delta t} = D_{s} \left(\frac{s_{j+1}^{k} - s_{j}^{k}}{h_{j}h_{i+\frac{1}{2}}} - \frac{s_{j}^{k} - s_{j-1}^{k}}{h_{i-\frac{1}{2}}h_{j}} \right) - \frac{(\partial_{x}^{(m)}s_{j+1}^{k})(c^{k+1} + s^{k})_{j+1} - (\partial_{x}^{(m)}s_{j-1}^{k})(c^{k+1} + s^{k})_{j-1}}{h_{j}} \\ - \frac{s_{j+1}^{k} - s_{j}^{k}}{h_{j}}u^{k} + 0.5\frac{(\partial_{x}^{(m)}c_{j+1}^{k+1})s_{j+1}^{k} - (\partial_{x}^{(m)}c_{j-1}^{k+1})s_{j-1}^{k}}{h_{j}} + H_{2}(c_{j}^{k+1}, s_{j}^{k}), \\ u^{k+1} = \frac{p_{j+1}^{k} - p_{j}^{k}}{h_{j}}. \end{cases}$$

where

$$\partial_x^{(m)} z_j^k = rac{z_{j+1}^k - z_j^k}{h_j} \quad ext{and} \quad \partial_x^{(m)} z_0^k = \partial_x^{(m)} z_{N_x}^k = 0,$$

(2.4.14)

for $1 \le j \le N_x - 1$. In Figure 2.1, we present the plots in log scale of the error estimates given by

$$e_{\Delta x}(h) = \frac{|h_{\Delta x}(t) - h_{2\Delta x}(t)|_1}{|h_{2\Delta x}(0)|_1}$$

to test the convergence of our scheme. This can be considered as an estimation of the relative error in l^1 norm, where $h_{\Delta x}$ is the numerical solution computed from a uniform grid of size $\Delta x = \frac{x_{max} - x_{min}}{N_x}$. The computations are performed with $N_x = \{80, 160, 320, 640\}, \Delta t = 10^{-6}$ at t = 0.01 for $\varepsilon = \{1, 10^{-2}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-6}\}$.



FIGURE 2.1: Convergence order of the method for $\varepsilon \in \{1, 10^{-2}, 10^{-3}, 10^{-6}\}$ at time t = 0.01 (M = 1) for the density c in the left and the density s in the right obtained from micro-macro scheme.

In Figure 2.2, we compute our numerical scheme for different values of times t = 0.02, 0.03, 0.07, 0.1 and for $\varepsilon = 10^{-k}$ where $k \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 6\}$ against the macroscopic system in the case: u = 0 and $c_0 = 0.65$, $s_0 = \exp(30x^2)$. Moreover in Figure 2.3, we consider u = 1 and $c_0 = 0.65$, $s_0 = \exp(30(x + 0.5)^2)$. These figures show that our (AP) scheme is stable in the limit. We observe that the profile of the densities c and s given by the two schemes are almost the same when $\varepsilon \to 0$ and this illustrates the result in Proposition 2.4.2. Moreover, we observe that the cross-diffusion effect induces the formation of patterns (by using Turing mechanisms) in the presence of the fluid. Moreover, we notice that the distribution of prey and predator is affected by the fluid transport. In Figures 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6, we illustrate the evolution of the densities c and s using micro-macro scheme for $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$ at final time T = 0.01 with different values of u (u = 0, u = 1 and u = -1). We note here that the species are diffusing according to the sign of the velocity u.

2.5 Conclusion and perspectives

In this chapter, we have proposed a new nonlinear macroscopic system coupled with the augmented Brinkman problem in a viscous flow in porous media. Specifically, the micro-macro decomposition has been applied to the kinetic system coupled with Brinkman problem (2.2.1) to derive asymptotic preserving numerical scheme. In other parts, we have proved the existence of weak solutions of the derived system (2.1.3) by using Schauder fixed-point theory. Finally, it has shown that the presented numerical scheme enjoys the asymptotic preserving property, in other words: when Knudsen parameter ε is small, our scheme is asymptotically equivalent to a standard numerical scheme for the derived macroscopic system. In this work, we developed our numerical results in one dimension using finite volume method for both macroscopic system (cross-diffusion-Brinkman) and micro-macro formulation. We believe that our technique can be extended to two dimensions. One only has to well choose the meshes, specifically for the nonstructural ones.



FIGURE 2.2: The Subfigures (a), (b), (c), (d) present time dynamics of predators densities c(t; x), while Subfigures (e), (f), (g), (h) present time dynamics of preys densities s(t; x) at t = 0.02, 0.04, 0.07, 0.1 obtained from the AP scheme with $\varepsilon = 10^{-k}$, k = 0; 1; 2; 3; 6 and comparison with cross-diffusion-Brinkman system on the domain [-1; 1] and initial conditions are given by $c_0 = 0.65$ and $s_0 = \exp(30x^2)$ in the case: u = 0.



FIGURE 2.3: The Subfigures (a), (b), (c), (d) present time dynamics of predators densities c(t; x), while Subfigures (e), (f), (g), (h) present time dynamics of preys densities s(t; x) at t = 0.02, 0.04, 0.07, 0.1 obtained from the AP scheme with $\varepsilon = 10^{-k}$, k = 0; 1; 2; 3; 6 and comparison with cross-diffusion-Brinkman system on the domain [-1; 1] and initial conditions are given by $c_0 = 0.65$ and $s_0 = \exp(30(x + 0.5)^2)$ in the case: u = 1.



FIGURE 2.4: Evolution of the densities c(t; x) and s(t; x) using micro-macro scheme for $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$ in the case u = 0.



FIGURE 2.5: Evolution of the densities c(t;x) and s(t;x) using micro-macro scheme for $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$ in the case u = 1.



FIGURE 2.6: Evolution of the densities c(t; x) and s(t; x) using micro-macro scheme for $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$ in the case u = -1.

Part II

Mathematical modeling of vehicular traffic by kinetic theory approach of active particles

Chapter 3

Representation and mathematical structures for one lane flow

This chapter is intended to give a brief overview of the basic mathematical structures for one lane vehicular traffic. It starts with the kinetic representation, in which we define the independent variables and dependent variables needed to describe the system. Then, macroscopic observable quantities can be obtained under suitable integrability assumption. Section 3.3 is devoted to state the mathematical structure of Boltzmann models with binary interaction, the models with Enskog-like interactions and Boltzmann models with averaged binary interactions. In section 3.4 we present discrete model by [43]. Section 3.5 is devoted to describe the kinetic theory for active particles. Specifically, the model by [21] where the authors take into account the behavior of the system driver-vehicle by adding the activity variable. The last section 3.6 aim to present the model by [47] where the authors propose a full discrete model.

3.1 Kinetic theory approach

Kinetic modeling in a Boltzmann framework applied to traffic flow was first initiated by [81]. Their model is based on local binary interactions framework with unidirectional flow and on the assumption that the driver is assumed willing to adjust the vehicle's velocity toward a certain desired velocity distribution. This model is only applicable in the situation of low traffic density. Indeed, in the inhomogeneous traffic flow situation, a serious drawback appears, for instance, since the velocities are positive, the traffic jams are not allowed to propagate backwards in negative direction, and this is in contrast to real traffic flow observations. Furthermore, the situation for kinetic equations in gas dynamics is completely different, because the velocity can be assumed positive and negative. Consequently, we can not expect to obtain a strict derivation of fluid dynamics equation from the aforesaid models. In order to correct this drawbacks, it is necessary to take in consideration the effects of the finite distance between the vehicles in analogy way to Enskog's theory for dense gas, see [68] where the authors used this argument in the context of microscopic interactions for the term of interactions.

After the pioneer work by [81], various contributions have been proposed by several authors starting from the critical analysis and substantial improvement proposed by [79] toward the most developments proposed, see for instance [76, 66, 67]. These models are based on a Boltzmann-type collision term in which the cross section, giving the probability of interaction between two particles, is replaced with a probability distribution depending on the local traffic conditions, see [76]. In contrast to work by [81], the equation proposed by [76] is strictly based on a microscopic model fulfilling the criterion of having a one parameter family of local equilibrium distributions depending only on the local density of cars. As in [76], the work by [66] derived a kinetic equation based on a microscopic model without going back to the phenomenological relation terms as in [81].

We would like to claim that the interactions integrals appeared in the models based in the continuous velocity typically do not provide the analytical expression of the equilibrium distribution and they are very demanding from computational point of view. To overtake these drawbacks, a several approaches has been proposed in literature. The first approach considered Vlasov-Fokker-Planck type model in which the integrals are replaced by differential operators, see [58] and recently [90]. The second one considered simplified kinetic models with a small number of velocities, namely based on the discrete-velocity [43, 21, 15].

It is attractive to state the two relevant complexity problems in the modeling of traffic flow by the engineer^[40]. The first criticism observation is the assumption of continuity of the distribution function. Indeed, the number of vehicles is not large enough to justify this assumption. The second criticism observation is the assumption of homogeneity of the behavior of the system driver-vehicle. Indeed, the behavior of this system is not the same. Consequently, new models should take into account these criticisms observations. The method of discrete kinetic theory by [43] appears pertinent to avoid the first complexity problem. Indeed, the authors developed this method using the discreteness of the velocity variable, which allowed for a finite number of velocity only. In order to correct the second criticism observation, the paper by [21] proposed a mathematical structure based on the method of kinetic theory of active particles. This method on the one hand converts the Boltzmann's integral-differential equation into a set of partial differential equations. On the other hand it relaxes the continuum hypothesis and includes the granular nature of vehicular traffic. Recent work [82] proposed a spatially homogeneous model with discrete velocity by taking into account the heterogeneous nature of the flow of vehicles along a road. Namely, the authors considered mixture of two classes of populations instead of one class as in [21]. They considered the class of cars which is shorter and faster, and the class of trucks which is longer and slower.

More recently, the authors in [83] proposed a kinetic model based on continuous velocity space in the spatially homogeneous case with binary interactions. Their approach differs from the kinetic model proposed in [21] because they assumed continuous velocity spaces. The obtained result in their work suggest that a small number of velocities is sufficient for the kinetic modeling of traffic. Moreover, the acceleration remains controlled by the parameter Δv , in contrast to models based on a lattice of velocities, in which the possible outcomes of an interaction and the acceleration of vehicles depend on the particular lattice chosen [43, 21]. On the other hand, they found the explicit expression of the asymptotic distribution which leads to deriving new macroscopic equations using the closure provided by the kinetic model. We think that the most important result in their work is the derivation of the fundamental diagrams with a phase transition without the need of prescribing heuristic speed-density relations.

3.2 On the kinetic theory representation

In this section we are concerned about the kinetic theory representation where ee define the needed variables to state the mathematical structures. Let us consider a one-directional flow of vehicles along a road with length ℓ . We would like to mention that when the independent and dependent variables are in a suitable dimension form, they represent the relevant phenomena related to traffic flow and therefore some specific models will be described. Moreover, writing the model in terms of dimensionless variables is useful towards computational analysis and allows to extract suitable scaling parameters which can be properly used towards a qualitative understanding of the proprieties of the model.

In order to define dimensionless quantities, one has to identify characteristic time *T* and length of road ℓ , as well as maximum density ρ_M and maximum mean velocity V_M . Specifically,

- ρ_M is the maximum density of vehicles corresponding to bumper-to-bumper traffic jam.
- *V_M* is the maximum admissible mean velocity which may be reached by vehicles in the empty road.

It is spontaneous to assume $V_M T = \ell$, which means that *T* is the time necessary to cover the whole road length ℓ at the maximum mean velocity V_M . After the above preliminaries, we can now define dimensionless independent and dependent variables. The dimensionless independent variables are

- $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$ is the dimensionless time variable obtained by referring the real time to a suitable critical time T_c to properly be defined by a qualitative analysis of the differential model. Generally, it is convenient to identify the critical time T_c as the ratio between ℓ and V_M .
- $x = \frac{x_r}{\ell}$ is the dimensionless space variable obtained by dividing the real space by the length ℓ of the lane, where x_r is the real dimensional space.

Moreover, suitable reference variables can be introduced to define the dependent variables.

• Of course a fast isolated vehicle can reach velocities larger that *V*_{*M*}. In particular a limit velocity can be defined as

$$V_\ell = (1+\mu)V_M, \qquad \mu > 0$$

taking into account that no vehicle can reach a velocity higher than V_{ℓ} , simply for mechanical reasons. Both V_M and μ may depend on the characteristics of the lane. Say, a country lane or a highway, as well as on the type of vehicles, for example, a slow car, a fast car, etc.

In the representation by kinetic theory methods, the whole system is defined by the statistical distribution function of position x and velocity v of the vehicles. This distribution function over the dimensionless microscopic state is defined by

$$f = f(t, x, v) : \mathbb{R}_+ \times [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \to \mathbb{R}_+.$$

f(t, x, v)dxdv gives the number of vehicles which, at time t, is in the phase space domain $[x, x + dx] \times [v, v + dv]$. The distribution function f is normalized with respect to ρ_M so that all derived variables can be given in a dimensionless form.

In the kinetic representation, macroscopic observable quantities can be obtained, under suitable integrability assumptions, as momenta of the distribution f, normalized with respect to the maximum density ρ_M in order that all variables are given in a dimensionless form. Specifically,

• the dimensionless density is given by

$$\rho(t,x) = \int_0^{1+\mu} f(t,x,v) dv,$$

• the total number of vehicles at time *t* is computes as following

$$N(t) = \int_0^1 \int_0^{1+\mu} f(t, x, v) dv dx,$$

• the flux is giving by

$$q(t,x) = \int_0^{1+\mu} v f(t,x,v) dv,$$

the dimensionless local mean velocity is

$$\xi(t,x) = \frac{q(t,x)}{\rho(t,x)}.$$

Higher order momenta are related to other macroscopic variables, such as the average kinetic energy *E* and the variance of the velocity *σ*

$$E(t,x) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{1+\mu} v^2 f(t,x,v) dv, \qquad \sigma(t,x) = \frac{1}{\rho(t,x)} \int_0^{1+\mu} [v - \xi(t,x)]^2 f(t,x,v) dv.$$

3.3 Mathematical structures

Kinetic approach derivation follows lines similar to those of kinetic of gas-theory. Indeed, it needs the modeling of pair interactions at microscopic level. Let us consider pair interactions between a *test* vehicle with the state (x, v) and the *field* vehicle with state (y, w). As in the kinetic theory, different ways of modeling local interactions generate different types of evolution equations. The difference with respect to the classical theory is that interactions do not follow the rules of classical mechanics; but instead, the driving strategy is expressed by the vehicle-driver systems.

Models which are available in the literature have occasionally been derived by heuristic arguments. This section provides a description of some conceivable frameworks which can be used toward modeling of vehicular traffic. In particular, the following ones will be concisely described in the next subsections:

- i) Boltzmann models with binary interactions,
- ii) models with Enskog-like interactions,
- iii) Boltzmann models with averaged binary interactions.

3.3.1 Boltzmann models with binary interactions

Localized binary interaction models are based on microscopic modeling, which assume binary interactions between the *test* and the *field* vehicles localized at point x of the field vehicle. The paper by [18] suggests the following formal structure

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + v \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = J[f, f](t, x, v)
= \int_{0}^{1+\mu} \int_{0}^{1+\mu} \eta(v^{*}, v_{*}) \mathcal{A}(v^{*}, v_{*}; v) f(t, x, v^{*}) f(t, x, v_{*}) dv^{*} dv_{*}
-f(t, x, v) \int_{0}^{1+\mu} \eta(v, v_{*}) f(t, x, v_{*}) dv_{*},$$
(3.3.1)

where the right-hand side gives the difference between the inflow and outflow of vehicles in the control volume of the phase space. Moreover,

- $\eta(v^*, v_*)$ or $\eta(v, v_*)$ is *the encounter rate* between the test vehicle with velocity v^* and the field vehicle with velocity v_* . It gives the number of interactions between pairs of vehicles per unit time in the unit space.
- A(v^{*}, v_{*}; v) is *the transition probability density* that a candidate or test vehicle with velocity v^{*} interacting with a vehicle with velocity v_{*} ends up with velocity v. The density A must be equal to zero for v ≥ 1 + μ.

The above description may lead to good results in homogeneous traffic flow situations; of course the description is satisfactory if the microscopic modeling is correct. If the above equation (3.3.1) are used for the description of inhomogeneous traffic flow situations, a serious drawback appears due to the positivity of the velocities v. There is no mechanism in the equations to allow perturbations to propagate backward in the negative-x direction. This can be seen by the following trivial argument: Considering a full space problem, the integral form of the kinetic equation is

$$f(t, x, v) = f(0, x - vt, v) + \int_0^t J[f, f](s, x + v(s - t), v) ds.$$

This shows that the distribution function f at x and t depends only on the distribution function at the values $x' \leq x$, $s \leq t$, since v is positive. A perturbation cannot propagate backward in the negative x direction. In particular, traffic jams occurring for dense traffic situations are not allowed to travel backward. This is in striking contrast to real traffic flow observations. Moreover, the above remark has consequences for the connection between kinetic and fluid dynamic traffic flow equations. Namely, one can not expect to obtain a strict derivation of fluid dynamic equations from the above kinetic equation (3.3.1). In general, to describe correctly the behavior of dense traffic with a kinetic equation and to obtain a consistent derivation of fluid dynamic equations. It is necessary to include the effects of the finite size extension of the vehicles. This can be done as we will show in the next subsection in analogy to Enskog's theory for a dense gas.

3.3.2 Models with Enskog-like interactions

Enskog-like models have a structure analogous to the Boltzmann-like models with binary interactions. The main difference is that the effects of the finite size of the vehicles are taken into account. Namely, the field vehicle is not localized in the same place x as the candidate or test vehicle, but at a certain distance from x that can be chosen depending on the velocities of the interacting pair. Moreover, the Enskog-type modeling introduces a pair correlation function depending on the local densities in the positions of the interacting pairs as follows, see [67]

$$f^{(2)}(t, x, v, y, w) \sim K(d_i(v, w), \rho(t, x))f(t, x, v)f(t, y, w),$$
(3.3.2)

where the function K is the correlation function between test and field vehicles depending, in a phenomenological way, on the reaction thresholds d_i of the driver, at least braking and accelerating thresholds. Interactions of the test vehicle are assumed to happen only when a threshold distance is crossed, and are supposed to be localized with a field vehicle in the position

$$y_i = y_i(v, w) = x + d_i(v, w).$$

The structure (3.3.1) can be rewritten in the following form

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + v \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \sum_{i=1}^{2} J_i[f, f](t, x, v)
= \sum_{i=1}^{2} \int_{0}^{1+\mu} \int_{0}^{1+\mu} \eta(v^*, w^*) \mathcal{A}_i(v^*, w^*; v) f^{(2)}(t, x, v^*, (x + d_i(v^*, w^*)), w^*) dv^* dw^*
- f(t, x, v) \sum_{i=1}^{2} \int_{0}^{1+\mu} \eta(v, w^*) f^{(2)}(t, x, v, (x + d_i(v, w^*)), w^*) dw^*.$$
(3.3.3)

Reconsidering the arguments in Subsection 4.3.1, one obtains

$$f(t, x, v) = f(0, x - vt, v) + \int_0^t \sum_{i=1}^2 J_i[f, f](s, x + v(s - t), v) ds.$$

In this case one observes, due to the definition of $J_i[f, f]$, that the distribution function at x, t depends not only on the distribution function at $x' \leq x, s \leq t$, but also on the distribution function at x' > x. Thus, this allows backward propagating disturbances.

3.3.3 Boltzmann models with averaged binary interactions

The review by [18] also introduces structure for models where a suitable function $\varphi(x, y)$ models the weight of the action on the driver of the test or candidate vehicle at x due to the field vehicle at y within the visibility area $D = [x - \delta r, x + \delta f]$ of the vehicle at x. Where δr and δf are, respectively, the rear and frontal visibility distance. For $y \in D$ the weight $\varphi(x, y)$ must be such that

$$y \uparrow \Rightarrow \varphi \downarrow, \qquad \int_D \varphi(x, y) dy = 1.$$
 (3.3.4)

The corresponding mathematical structure is written as follows

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + v \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \int_{D} \int_{0}^{1+\mu} \int_{0}^{1+\mu} \eta(v^{*}, v_{*}) \mathcal{A}(v^{*}, v_{*}; v) f(t, x, v^{*}) f(t, x, v_{*}) \varphi(x, y) dv^{*} dv_{*} dy -f(t, x, v) \int_{D} \int_{0}^{1+\mu} \eta(v, v_{*}) f(t, x, v_{*}) \varphi(x, y) dv_{*} dy.$$
(3.3.5)

It is immediate to show that Eq. (3.3.5), assuming that $\varphi(y) = \delta(y - x)$ (or $\varphi(y) = \delta(y - x + d)$), where δ denotes Dirac's delta function, gives a localized interaction models. Analogous reasoning can be applied to Enskog-type models.

It is worth stating that the above mathematical frameworks are criticized in [18]. Indeed, these mathematical frameworks did not take into account the complexity features. Precisely, as previously mentioned, the assumption of continuity of the distribution function and the assumption of homogeneity of the driver-vehicle systems. These critical analysis from an engineer's point of view on traffic phenomena modeling is given by the sharp paper of [40]. A few sentences can be extracted from this paper:

- (*i*) Shock waves and particle flows in fluid dynamics refer to thousands of particles, while only a few vehicles are involved in traffic jams.
- (ii) A vehicle is not a particle but a system linking driver and mechanics, so that one has to take into account the reaction of the driver, who may be aggressive, timid, prompt, etc. This criticism also applies to kinetic type models.

(iii) Increasing the complexity of the model increases the number of parameters to be identified.

The aim of the next sections is to take into account these criticism observations.

3.4 Discrete velocity models

The objective of this section is to overtake the first criticism (i). Namely, the continuity assumption of the function distribution. Indeed, continuity assumption can not be applied to vehicular flows considering that the inter-vehicular distances cannot be neglected, while methods of mathematical kinetic theory need a number of particles much greater than those involved in the road. To achieve this goal, it is pertinent to proceed by the discrete velocity methods which are based on the assumption that particles can only attain a finite number of velocities. Thus, developing discrete velocity models in kinetic theory appears to be particularly interesting, considering that vehicles are often observed to move along highways with group velocities, thus creating *clusters* of vehicles related to certain sets of velocities.

Referring to paper by [43], the authors observe that vehicles traveling along a road do not continuously span the whole set of admissible velocities; rather, they tend to move in clusters. This lead them to consider a mathematical structure that corresponds to average stochastic games. Technically, developing a discrete velocity model of traffic flow means selecting a discrete number of velocities as follows

$$I_v = \{v_0 = 0, ..., v_i, ..., v_n = 1\} \subset D_v = [0, 1],$$

where velocities have been divided by the maximal admitted velocity V_{ℓ} , D_v is the dimensionless velocity domain, and n is the number of points. In principle, the only requirement on n is that, it should be a positive integer different from zero i.e. $n \in \mathbb{N}$, n > 0. Each v_i is interpreted as a velocity classes encompassing a certain range of velocities v which are not individually distinguished. The discretization introduced above is not a simple mathematical procedure. Instead, it plays a specific role in the modeling of the system. Namely, it represents possible ways to consider the strongly granular nature of traffic. On the other hand, we observe that vehicles traveling along a road do not give rise to a continuous velocity distribution, since they tend to move in clusters which can be identified and distinguished from each other by a discrete set of speed values.

The corresponding discrete representation is obtained by linking the discrete distribution functions to each velocity v_i , i = 1, ..., n. Precisely, the distribution function f is expressed as a linear combination of Dirac functions in the variable v with coefficients depending on time t and space x.

$$f(t, x, v) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(t, x) \delta(v - v_i), \qquad (3.4.1)$$

where $f_i(t, x) = f(t, x, v_i)$ gives the distribution of vehicles in the point *x* having at time *t* a velocity comprised in the *i*-th velocity class.

Naturally, the above discrete velocity approach implies that vehicles with velocity larger than V_{ℓ} can be disregarded. In other words, it is technically assumed that the presence of vehicles with velocity much larger than the maximum mean velocity corresponding to the given density is negligible. However, in a discrete velocity framework, such a detail is actually not very relevant, since vehicles are grouped and classified on the basis of velocity classes $\{v_i\}_{i=1}^n$. So that those which travel at speeds higher than V_M are simply included in the extreme class v_n . On the other hand, technically $v_1 = 0$ which coincides with the left endpoint of the interval D_v . The other classes are then recovered as

$$v_{i+1} = v_i + (\Delta v)_i, \qquad i = 1, ..., n-1,$$

where $(\Delta v)_i$ represents the amplitude of the *i*-th velocity class. The authors have been consider an uniformly spaced velocity grid over D_v , which implies a constant step

$$\Delta v = \frac{|D_v|}{n-1},$$

where $|D_v|$ is the length of the interval D_v . It results also that

$$v_i = (i-1)\Delta v, \qquad i = 1, ..., n,$$

with $v_n = |D_v|$. Note that if one takes $D_v = [0, 1 + \mu]$ with μ sufficiently small, then the resulting amplitude $\Delta v = \frac{1+\mu}{n-1}$ of the velocity classes little differs from the case D_v , which produces $\Delta v = \frac{1}{n-1}$. Consequently, one can choose to refer to the unit dimensionless velocity domain $D_v = [0, 1]$ by simply assuming that vehicles possibly traveling at speeds higher than 1 are included in the extreme velocity class $v_n = 1$. The authors explicitly assumed a uniformly spaced velocity grid of the form

$$v_i = \frac{i-1}{n-1}, \qquad i = 1, ..., n$$

with the constant grid step $\Delta v = \frac{1}{n-1}$.

Using the representation of the distribution function f given by Eq. (3.4.1), the following expressions for the classical macroscopic average quantities are easily derived:

the vehicle density

$$\rho(t,x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(t,x);$$

• the vehicle flux

$$q(t,x) = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i f_i(t,x) = \rho(t,x)\xi(t,x),$$

where ξ is the mean velocity;

the variance of the velocity

$$\sigma(t,x) = \frac{1}{\rho(t,x)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [v_i - \xi(t,x)]^2 f_i(t,x).$$

The mathematical model by [43] is a set of evolution equations for the densities which can be formally written as follows

$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial t} + v_i \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x} = \sum_{h=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{D_w} \eta[\mathbf{f}](t, y) \mathcal{A}^i_{h,k}[\mathbf{f}; \alpha](t, y) f_h(t, x,) f_k(t, y) w(x, y) dy - f_i(t, x) \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{D_w} \eta[\mathbf{f}](t, y) f_k(t, y) w(x, y) dy,$$
(3.4.2)

for i = 1, ..., n, where $D_w = [x, x + L]$ is the visibility zone where L > 0, and $\mathbf{f} = (f_1, ..., f_n)$. Moreover,

- η[f] is the interaction rate, which gives the number of interactions per unit time among the vehicles,
- $\mathcal{A}_{h,k}^{i}[\mathbf{f};\alpha]$ defines the table of games, which models the microscopic interactions among the vehicles by giving the probability that a vehicle with speed v_h adjusts its velocity to v_i after an interaction with a vehicle traveling at speed v_k .
- *w*(*x*, *y*) represents the function weighting the interactions over the visibility zone; it is required to satisfy

$$w(x,y) \ge 0, \ \forall x \in [0,1], y \in D_w, \ \int_{D_w} w(x,y) dy = 1, \ \forall y \in D_w,$$

• *α* is phenomenological parameter, whose lower and higher values are related to bad and good road conditions respectively.

Furthermore, the authors assume that both the interaction rate and the table of games depend on the local density ρ with the following additional requirement

$$\mathcal{A}_{h,k}^{i}[\mathbf{f};\alpha] \ge 0, \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{A}_{h,k}^{i}[\mathbf{f};\alpha] = 1 \qquad \forall h,k \in \{1,...,n\}.$$
(3.4.3)

It is worth stating that numerical simulations of the spatially inhomogeneous problem have been carried out by addressing three representative cases, which highlight the ability of the model to reproduce correctly some interesting features of vehicular traffic flow. In particular, the merging of two clusters of vehicles with concomitant appearance of stop-and-go waves and the backward propagation of a queue, possibly in presence of a bottleneck, with a vehicle density profile which in this second case closely follows that of the bottleneck, and which in both cases never overcomes the maximum value fixed by the road capacity. Moreover, the above kinetic model (3.4.1) has been derived according to the generalized kinetic theory, where interactions at the microscopic level do not follow laws of classical mechanics. However, they are the same for all interacting vehicles. In other words, the behavior of the vehicle-driver system follows specific strategies that modify classical mechanical rules, but they are not heterogeneously distributed among the vehicles.

3.5 Kinetic Theory of Active Particles

The Kinetic Theory of Active Particles, hereafter sometimes abbreviated as KTAP, is a mathematical method that has been developed to model the dynamics of large living systems, see [12]. Motivations to use KTAP's methods to model vehicular traffic are offered by the criticisms (*ii*) and (*iii*) cited above in Subsection (2.3.3) by [40]. The basic idea of KTAP is to consider each drivervehicle as an *active particle* of a large complex system, to model the heterogeneous behavior of the micro-systems that compose the overall system. As previously mentioned, [21] proceeded by the KTAP's method. The authors consider a modeling approach which takes into account not only the lack of continuity of the distribution function with respect to the velocity variable v but also with respect to the activity variable u. In order to describe this method, the authors discretized the variables v and u by introducing the following sets Iv and I_u

$$I_v = \{v_1 = 0, ..., v_i, ..., v_n = 1\}, \qquad I_u = \{u_1 = 0, ..., u_i, ..., u_m = 1\}.$$

where n and m are, respectively, the number of discretization points of the velocity v and the activity u.

The authors used a fixed uniform grids of velocity and activity defined as follows

$$v_i = \frac{i-1}{n-1}, \quad u_j = 1 - \frac{j-1}{m}, \qquad \forall i = 1, ..., n, \quad \forall j = 1, ..., m.$$
 (3.5.1)

Moreover, the distribution function is defined as a sum of Dirac distributions in the variable v and u, with coefficients depending on t and x

$$f(t, x, v, u) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} f_{ij}(t, x) \delta(v - v_i) \delta(u - u_j),$$
(3.5.2)

where $f_{ij}(t, x) = f(t, x, v_i, u_j)$.

Thus, according to this mathematical representation, the following expressions for the classical macroscopic average quantities are easily derived

the dimensionless local density

$$\rho(t, x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} f_{ij}(t, x),$$

· the dimensionless mean velocity and flow

$$\xi(t,x) = \frac{1}{\rho(t,x)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} v_i f_{ij}(t,x),$$

and

$$q(t,x) = \xi(t,x)\rho(t,x).$$

• while the local speed variance is given by

$$\sigma(t,x) = \frac{1}{\rho(t,x)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} [v_i - \xi(t,x)]^2 f_{ij}(t,x).$$

• Similarly, one can compute the local mean value and variance of the activity variable

$$a(t,x) = \frac{1}{\rho(t,x)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} u_j f_{ij}(t,x),$$

and

$$Var(a) = \frac{1}{\rho(t,x)} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} [u_j - a(t,x)]^2 f_{ij}(t,x).$$

The authors introduce the discrete probability density

$$\mathcal{A}_{hk,pq}^{ij}(v_h \to v_i, u_k \to u_j | v_h, v_p, u_k, u_q, \rho(t, y)), \tag{3.5.3}$$

which denotes the probability density that the candidate particle (v_h, u_k) falls into the state (v_i, u_j) of the test particle after an interaction with a field particle (v_p, u_q) , with the property that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \mathcal{A}_{hk,pq}^{i,j} = 1, \qquad \forall h, p \in \{1, ..., n\} \quad \forall k, q \in \{1, ..., m\}.$$
(3.5.4)

The evolution of the system is ruled by nonlinearly additive interactions described by stochastic games. The corresponding mathematical structure by [21] is written as follows

$$\frac{\partial f_{ij}}{\partial t} + v_i \frac{\partial f_{ij}}{\partial x} = \sum_{h,p=1}^n \sum_{k,q=1}^m \int_x^{x+L} \eta[\rho(t,y), x] \\
\times \mathcal{A}_{hk,pq}^{ij}(v_h \to v_i, u_k \to u_j | v_h, v_p, u_k, u_q, \rho(t,y)) f_{hp}(t,x,) f_{kq}(t,y) dy \\
- f_{ij}(t,x) \sum_{p=1}^n \sum_{q=1}^m \int_x^{x+L} \eta[\rho(t,y), x] f_{pq}(t,y) dy,$$
(3.5.5)

where L > 0 is the visibility zone length, and

• $\eta[\rho(t, y), x]$ is the encounter rate. The authors consider the following expression

$$\eta[\rho(t,y),x] = \Psi[\rho(t,y)]w(x,y),$$

where w(x, y) is the weighted function; it is required to satisfy

$$w(x,y) \ge 0, \ \int_{D_w} w(x,y) dy = 1, \ \forall x \in [0,1], \ \forall y \in [x,x+L],$$

and

$$\Psi[\rho(t,y)] = 1 + \frac{1}{\alpha}\rho^2,$$

• α is a phenomenological parameter modeling the traffic condition. Technically, $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ models bad condition and $\alpha \rightarrow 1$ models good condition.

u ∈ [0,1] is the activity variable, which identifies the quality of the driver-vehicle microsystem. *u* = 0 corresponds to the worst quality and *u* = 1 corresponds to the best quality.

The authors presented some numerical simulations in the case of the spatially homogeneous and inhomogeneous problems that show the ability of the above model (3.4.1) to reproduce some empirical data. Namely, in the first case, the numerical simulations are devoted to reproduce the so called fundamental diagrams [63]. Such diagrams relate the density of cars to either their average speed or their flux, this way providing synthetic insights into the gross phenomenology of vehicular traffic flow expected in stationary conditions. In the second case, the authors consider a special case of merging of two clusters.

To make it short, the idea of the aforesaid models by [43] and [21] is to relax the hypothesis that the speed distribution is continuous by introducing in the domain D_v a lattice of discrete speeds. Consequently, the granular character of the car flow is at least partially taken into account from the point of view of the speed distribution. We will propose a deep revisiting of the paper by [21] in the Chapter ??.

3.6 A fully-discrete-state kinetic model by Fermo and Tosin

This section is devoted to introduce a mathematical framework starting from the discrete velocity kinetic method. In order to accomplish the program of a fully-discrete-state kinetic theory of vehicular traffic, we refer to the paper by [47], in which the position x and velocity v are discrete. The authors follow line of aforesaid framework [43] for the discretization of the velocity v. The basic idea is to introduce a partition of the spatial domain. It is worth anticipating that partitioning the spatial domain D_x in a number of cells of finite size is a more realistic way to detect the positions of the vehicles along the road. Indeed, it is consistent with the intrinsic granularity of the flow, which does not allow for a statistical description of their spatial distribution more accurate than a certain minimum level of details. In addition, it enables one to account easily for some effects due to the finite size of the vehicles even in a context where the actual representation is not focused on each of them. Technically, a useful partition of the spatial domain D_x is in pairwise disjoint cells I_i , whose union is $D_x = [0, L]$, where L > 0 is the length of the road. Namely,

$$D_x = \bigcup_{i=1}^m I_i, \qquad I_{i_1} \cap I_{i_2} = \emptyset, \qquad \forall i_1 \neq i_2, \tag{3.6.1}$$

where $m \in \mathbb{N}$ is the number of cells I_i needed for covering D_x , which depends on the size ℓ_i of each I_i . Moreover, cells assumed have a constant size ℓ , chosen in a such a way that $\frac{L}{\ell} \in \mathbb{N}$, therefore $m = \frac{L}{\ell}$.

The authors consider $f_{ij} = f_{ij}(t)$ the distribution function of vehicles that, at time t, are located in the *i*-th cell with a speed in the *j*-th class. The total number N_{ij} of vehicles in I_i with speed v_j is $N_{ij} = f_{ij}l$. Then, the total number N_i of vehicles in I_i is

$$N_i = \sum_{j=1}^n N_{ij} = \ell \sum_{j=1}^n f_{ij}.$$

One can get the total number N of vehicles along the road by further summing over *i*,

$$N = \sum_{i=1}^{m} N_i = \ell \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f_{ij}.$$

The system is described by a distribution function

$$f(t, x, v) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f_{ij}(t) \chi_{I_i}(x) \delta(v - v_j),$$
(3.6.2)

 χ_{I_i} being the characteristic function of the cell I_i ($\chi_{I_i}(x) = 1$ if $x \in I_i$, $\chi_{I_i}(x) = 0$ if $x \notin I_i$). In practice, f is an atomic distribution with respect to the variable v, like in the discrete velocity framework, and is piecewise constant with respect to the variable x. Particularly, this latter characteristic implies that vehicles are thought of as uniformly distributed within each cell.

Usual macroscopic variables of traffic, such as the vehicle density ρ , flux q, and average speed ξ are obtained from Eq. (3.6.2) as distributional moments of f with respect to v: the density, the flux and the mean velocity quantities are defined by

$$\rho(t,x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} f_{ij}(t) \right) \chi_{I_i}(x), \quad q(t,x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} f_{ij}(t) \right) \chi_{I_i}(x), \quad \xi(t,x) = \frac{q(t,x)}{\rho(t,x)}$$

According to [47], the corresponding model is written as follows

$$\frac{df_{ij}}{dt} + v_i (\phi_{i,i+1}f_{ij}(t) - \phi_{i-1,i}f_{i-1,j}(t)) = \sum_{h,k=1}^n \eta_{hk}(i)\mathcal{A}^j_{hk}(i)f_{ih}(t)f_{ik}(t) - f_{ij}(t)\sum_{k=1}^n \eta_{jk}(i)f_{ik}(t)$$
(3.6.3)

where

- 1. if 2 < i < m 1, the equation are well defined;
- 2. if i = 1, $\phi_{0,1}$, $f_{0,1}$ are provided as left boundary conditions;
- 3. if i = m, $\phi_{m,m+1}$ has to be the right conditions.

Moreover,

 φ_{i,i+1} is the flux limiters, which limits the number of vehicles that can actually travel across the cells on the basis of the occupancy of the destination cells.

$$\phi_{i,i+1} = \begin{cases} \frac{1-\rho_{i+1}}{\rho_i}, & \text{if } \rho_i + \rho_{i+1} > 1, \\ 1, & \text{if } \rho_i + \rho_{i+1} \le 1, \end{cases}$$

where ρ_i is the density of the *i*-th cell.

• $\eta_{hk}(i)$, $\eta_{jk}(i)$ are the encounter rate, they present frequency interaction between (I_i, v_h) and (I_i, v_k)

$$\eta_{hk}(i) = \eta_0 \rho_i$$
, with η_0 = constant.

• $\mathcal{A}_{hk}^{l}(i)$ is the table of games, it presents the probability that (I_i, v_h) interacting with (I_i, v_k) becomes (I_i, v_j) . the following conditions must hold

$$\mathcal{A}_{hk}^{j}(i) \geq 0, \qquad \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathcal{A}_{hk}^{j}(i) = 1, \qquad \forall h, j, k \in \{1, ..., n\} \quad \forall i \in \{1, ..., m\}.$$

It is worth anticipating that the resulting model Eq. (3.6.3) is not a cellular automaton in spite of the discreteness of the space state. In fact, vehicles are not assimilated to fictive particles jumping from their current site to a neigh-boring one with prescribed probability. They actually flow through the cells with their true speed according to a transport term duly implemented in the time evolution equations of their distribution functions. So that finally the evolution of the system is not seen as a stepwise algorithmic update of the lattice of microscopic states.

The validity of the above model (3.6.3), and indirectly also that of the methodological approach which generated it, can be assessed through exploratory numerical simulations addressing typical phenomena of vehicular traffic. For this reason, the authors consider the case of space dynamics at traffic lights and the case of space dynamics for road works.

Chapter 4

Conclusion and perspectives

4.1 Summary

This thesis has been devoted to the modeling and mathematical analysis of complex systems in biology and vehicular traffic on the basis of kinetic theory and macroscopic-fluid approaches. The aims were to propose and to study a new mathematical models which improve some interesting characteristics of already existing models. On the other hand, these proposed models are suitable for mathematical modeling investigations. In the first part, we successfully proposed two new macroscopic systems and two new kinetic-fluid models describing the interacting biological species living in complex medium. The second part of this thesis dealt with vehicular traffic flow on the basis of kinetic theory of active particles. Here also, we are successfully proposed and studied a new general mathematical structure according to a kinetic theory approach. It includes the features of the complex system under consideration which appear to be the most important aspects of the dynamics to be retained by the modeling approach. Namely heterogeneity of the driver-vehicle subsystem, aggregation dynamics for vehicles with closed each other velocity, passing probability, variable properties of the road-environment where the dynamics occur and role of the external actions. The most important achievements in this thesis can be summarized as follows:

• Kinetic-fluid derivation and mathematical analysis of cross-diffusion-Brinkman system. We have proposed a new nonlinear cross-diffusion system coupled to a stationary fluid. The micromacro decomposition has been applied to derive this system from kinetic-fluid model. Moreover, we have proved the existence of weak solutions of the derived system by using Schauder fixed-point theory. Finally, it has shown that the presented numerical scheme enjoys the asymptotic preserving property. In other words, when Knudsen parameter ε is small, our scheme is asymptotically equivalent to a standard numerical scheme of the derived cross-diffusion-fluid system.

• Kinetic-fluid derivation and mathematical analysis of nonlocal cross-diffusion-fluid system. We have proposed a new generalized nonlocal cross-diffusion model for multi-interacting populations coupled to non-stationary fluid. The proposed model has been derived from an improved nonlocal kinetic-fluid model by using the micro-macro decomposition technique. On the basis of nonlinear Galerkin method, we have proved the existence of weak solutions for the proposed system. Moreover, we have developed an asymptotic preserving numerical schemes (AP). Simultaneously, we have reproduced some interesting phenomena such as the pattern-formation induced by tross-diffusion terms and convection of species caused by the fluid motion. Motivated by the obtained numerical simulation in 1D, we shown the effect of nonlocal diffusion together with cross-diffusion, as well as fluid flow in an explicit form of the fluid velocity on the interactions of populations. Finally, we have demonstrated the effect of external forces (obstacle interior de domain and the force of gravity) on the dynamic of fluid flow and simultaneously on the behavior of interacting populations.

• Multiscale continuum-velocity kinetic model for vehicular traffic with local and mean field interactions. We have proposed a mew mathematical structure on the basis of the kinetic theory for active particles. The purpose was to provide further developments of interest for the applications and to treat the following modeling topics: Interactions, both local and long distance,

between vehicles accounting on perceived (rather than real ones) quantities of the flow of vehicles, role of variable road conditions, and dynamics under external actions such as presence of tollgates.

4.2 Looking ahead for perspectives

In our opinion, this thesis opens up several research perspectives.

• **Development of asymptotic preserving numerical schemes in 2D.** A natural extension of our presented works in chapters 2-?? would be the development of an asymptotic preserving numerical schemes in 2D. We think that our proposed numerical schemes en the basis of the finite volume method can be extended to this aim, one only has to well choose the meshes. However, one has to overtake the drawback of the computational cost.

• Anisotropic model with degenerate diffusion. In fact, we have in mind many models that can be studied by an improved developed techniques. The future works include the derivation and mathematical analysis of the following anisotropic model with degenerate diffusion

$$\begin{cases} \partial_t u_1 - \operatorname{div}\left(a(x)\nabla u_1 + b(x)\nabla u_2\right) = H_1(u_1, u_2), \\ \\ \partial_t u_2 - \operatorname{div}\left(c(x)\nabla u_1 + d(x)\nabla u_2\right) = H_2(u_1, u_2). \end{cases}$$

• Other numerical applications for vehicular traffic flow. A natural extension of our work in chapter ?? would be the development of other numerical applications. As it mentioned, our proposed model (??) brings together all the following modeling topics: Interactions, both local and long distance, between vehicles accounting on perceived (rather than real ones) quantities of the flow of vehicles, role of variable road conditions, and dynamics under external actions such as presence of tollgates. We have successfully reproduced the fundamental diagrams in the homogeneous case and the emerging of two clusters. However, we think that it is so interesting to seek for other applications such as the bottleneck, tallgates and stop and go waves phenomena. We stress that one has to reduce the complexity of the numerical cost.

• On the modeling of multilane traffic flow by kinetic theory for active particles [61]. Another possible extension of the kinetic model proposed in chapter ?? is the derivation of new models being able to describe the multilane traffic flow. This was the aim of an article in preparation where we propose the following model

$$\begin{split} \partial_t f_{ij}^{\ell}(t,x) &+ v_i \partial_x f_{ij}^{\ell}(t,x) = J_{ij}^{\ell}[f](t,x) \\ &= \sum_{r,s=1}^{L} \sum_{h,p=1}^{n} \sum_{k,q=1}^{m} \int_{x}^{x+\xi} \eta^r [\rho_r(t,x^*),x] \mathcal{A}_{hk,pq,rs}^{i,j,\ell} f_{h,k}^r(t,x) f_{p,q}^s(t,x^*) dx^* \\ &- f_{ij}^{\ell}(t,x) \sum_{s=1}^{L} \sum_{p=1}^{n} \sum_{q=1}^{m} \int_{x}^{x+\xi} \eta^{\ell} [\rho_{\ell}(t,x^*),x] f_{p,q}^s(t,x^*) dx^*, \end{split}$$

for i = 1, ..., n, j = 1, ..., m, and $\ell = 1, ..., L$. In the proposed model above

- $x^* \in J_{\xi} = [x, x + \xi]$, with J_{ξ} represents the visibility zone;
- η^ℓ[ρ_ℓ(t, x*), x] is the encounter rate, it depends on the probability distributions by means of the density ρ_ℓ in the ℓ-lane.
- $\mathcal{A}_{hk,pq,rs}^{i,j,\ell}[v_h \to v_i, u_k \to u_j, y_r \to y_l | v_h, v_p, u_k, u_q, y_r, y_s, \rho_\ell(t, x^*)]$ defines the table of games, which denotes the probability density that the candidate particle (v_h, u_k, y_r) falls into the state (v_i, u_j, y_l) of the test particle after an interaction with a field particle (v_p, u_q, y_s) .

Appendix A

Mathematical analysis of the spatially homogeneous problem

In this appendix, we prove the existence and uniqueness of solution in the spatially homogeneous case associated to model (??). Thus, the distribution function *f* is given by

$$f = f(t, v) : [0, T] \times [0, 1] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

Consequently, the Initial Value Problem (IVP) is given by

$$\begin{cases} \frac{df}{dt} = \eta[\rho_0] \Big(\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \mathcal{A}[\rho_0](v_* \to v | \alpha, u) f(t, v_*) f(t, v^*) dv_* dv^* - f(t, v) \rho_0 \Big) \\ f(0, v) = f_0(v) \in \mathbb{R}_+. \end{cases}$$
(A.0.1)

Remarks:

- The distribution function *f* is independent of the variable *x*. Consequently ∂_xf = 0, which gives ρ^p = ρ. Moreover, by integrating over *v* the IVP (A.0.1) once get the integral of source term equals 0, then gets ρ(t) = ρ₀.
- The encounter rate is defined by $\eta[\rho_0] = \eta_0(1 + \gamma_\eta \rho_0)$. Then, there exists a constant C_η such that

$$0 < \eta[\rho_0] \le C_\eta.$$

The probability density is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{A}[\rho_0](v_* \to v) &= \left(H(v^* - v_*) \Big((1 - P) \frac{e^{-\frac{|v - v_*|^2}{\sigma_1}}}{\int_{v_m}^{v_M} e^{-\frac{|v - v_*|^2}{\sigma_1}} dv} + P \frac{(v_M - v)^2}{\int_{v_m}^{v_M} (v_M - v)^2 dv} \right) \\ &+ (1 - H(v_* - v^*)) \Big(P \frac{e^{-\frac{|v - v_*|^2}{\sigma_2}}}{\int_{v_m}^{v_M} e^{-\frac{|v - v_*|^2}{\sigma_2}} dv} + (1 - P) \frac{v_M - v}{\int_{v_m}^{v_M} (v_M - v) dv} \Big) \Big) \chi_{[v_m, v_M]}(v) \end{aligned}$$

where $P = \alpha u(1-\rho_0), \sigma_1 = \alpha u(1-\rho_0)/200, \sigma_2 = (1-\alpha u(1-\rho_0))/200, v_m = \max\{0, \min\{v_*, v^*\} - (1-\alpha u)\rho_0(|v_*-v^*| + \exp(-|v_*-v^*|))/200\}$ and $v_M = \min\{1, \max\{v_*, v^*\} + \alpha u(1-\rho_0)(|v_*-v^*| + \exp(-|v_*-v^*|))/200\}$.

We introduce the following space $X_T = C([0, T]; L^1([0, 1]))$ for some T > 0, equipped with the norm

$$||f|| = \sup_{t \in [0,T]} ||f(t,.)||_1 = \sup_{t \in [0,T]} \int_0^1 |f(t,v)| dv.$$

A.1 Local existence

Theorem A.1.1 Let $\rho_0 \in [0, 1]$ Then there exists a unique function f solution to the IVP (??) such that f is non-negative and such that

$$||f(t,.)||_1 = ||f_0(.)||_1 = \rho_0, \quad \forall t \in [0,T].$$
 (A.1.1)

Proof A.1.1 In the sequel we denoted the term source by Q[f, f] defined by

$$Q[f,f](t,v) = \eta[\rho_0] \Big(\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \mathcal{A}[\rho_0](v_* \to v | \alpha, u) f(t,v_*) f(t,v^*) dv_* dv^* - f(t,v) \rho_0 \Big).$$

The proof of this theorem is based on the two following Lemmas:

Lemma A.1.1 There exists a constant C > 0 such that

$$||Q[f,f](t,.)||_1 \le C||f(t,.)||_1^2,$$
(A.1.2)

$$||Q[f,f](t,.) - Q[g,g](t,.)||_{1} \le C \left(||f(t,.)||_{1} + ||g(t,.)||_{1} \right) ||f(t,.) - g(t,.)||_{1}.$$
(A.1.3)

Let $R(f)(t,v) = \int_0^t Q[f,f](s,v)ds$, then one have the following Lemma

Lemma A.1.2 The operator R is continuous map from X to X. Moreover, $\exists C > 0$ such that

$$||R(f)|| \le CT ||f||^2,$$
 (A.1.4)

$$||R(f) - R(g)|| \le CT \left(||f|| + ||g|| \right) ||f - g||.$$
(A.1.5)

After integrating Eq.(??) over the interval [0, t], $t \in [0, T]$, it can be written in the form of integral equation

$$f = N(f)$$

where

$$N(f)(t,v) = f_0(v) + \int_0^t Q[f,f](s,v) ds$$

From the Lemma A.1.2, we have the following estimates

$$||N(f)|| \le ||f_0(.)||_1 + CT||f||^2,$$
 (A.1.6)

$$|N(f) - N(g)|| \le CT \bigg(||f|| + ||g|| \bigg) ||f - g||.$$
(A.1.7)

In order to apply the Banach fixed point method, the operator N should verify the following estimates

$$||N(f)|| \le ||f||, \tag{A.1.8}$$

$$||N(f) - N(g)|| \le L||f - g||, \quad L \in [0, 1[.$$
 (A.1.9)

By comparing the estimates (9) - (11), the solution of the following equation

$$||f_0(.)||_1 + CT||f||^2 - ||f|| = 0$$

Assume that $\Delta = 1 - 4CT |f_0(.)||_1 > 0$ that implies the condition on T

$$T \le \frac{1}{4C|f_0(.)||_1}$$

In the oder hand, one can choose to solve

$$CT2r = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow r = \frac{1}{4CT} \ge ||f||.$$

The operator N is a contraction on a ball in X_T of radius r, then there exists a unique local solution f of Eq. (??) on [0, T].

In order to finish to proof of the theorem it remains the positivity of the solution. After multiplying Eq.(??) by exp(R) and integrating over [0, t], we get

$$N(f)(t,v) = f(t,v) = \exp(-\eta[\rho_0]\rho_0 t)f_0(v) + \int_0^t \exp(\eta[\rho_0]\rho_0(s-t))\eta[\rho_0] dv + \int_0^t \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \mathcal{A}[\rho_0](v_* \to v)f(s,v_*)f(s,v^*) dv_* dv^* ds.$$

The operator N maps X_T^+ into itself if $f_0(v)$ is positive. That closed the proof of the theorem.

A.2 Global existence

Thanks to the existence of local solution in time and the estimate (A.1.2), we can prove the existence of global solution in time to our problem (??).

Theorem A.2.1 *The problem (??) admits a unique nonnegative global solution* $f \in C([0, +\infty); L^1([0, 1])$ *satisfying the estimate (A.1.2).*

Proof A.2.1 It suffices to apply the same reasoning developed in the proof of Theorem 1 on the interval (T, 2T], taking f(T, v) as new initial condition. Since $f(T) \ge 0$ and moreover $\int_0^1 f(T, v) dv = \rho_0 \in [0, 1]$ we are in the same hypotheses of Theorem 4.1, hence we can conclude on the existence and uniqueness of a local solution on [T, 2T] satisfying the estimate

$$||f(t,.)||_1 = ||f(T,.)||_1, \quad \forall t \in (T,2T]$$

Therefore a unique solution f(t, v) to the problem (??) in the whole interval (0, 2T] is found. Iterating this procedure on all intervals of the form (kT, (k+1)T], $k \in N$, we can construct the global solution on \mathbb{R}_+ .

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