

# Conservation laws and simple flows

## The conservation of circulation

The velocity circulation around the contour  $C$  is defined as

$$\Gamma = \oint_C \vec{v} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

Let us calculate its time derivative

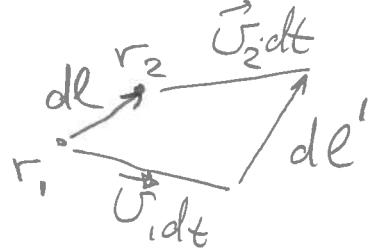
$$\frac{d}{dt} \oint_C \vec{v} \cdot d\vec{l}$$

Here we consider the total time derivative  $\Rightarrow$  the change in the circulation around a "fluid contour" that moves with the fluid

In taking time derivative we should take into account not only change of velocity with time but also change of the contour  $C$ .

$$\frac{d}{dt} \oint \vec{J} \cdot d\vec{l} = \oint \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} \cdot d\vec{l} + \oint \vec{J} \cdot \frac{d(d\vec{l})}{dt}$$

In the last integral



$$\begin{aligned} d\vec{l}' &= \vec{r}_2 + \vec{J}_2(r_2) dt - \vec{r}_1 - \vec{J}_1(r_1) dt = \\ &= dl + dt \cdot (\vec{dl} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{J} \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\frac{d}{dt} dl = (\vec{dl} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{J}$

As a result

$$\oint \vec{J} \cdot \frac{d}{dt} (dl) = \oint \vec{J} \cdot (\vec{dl} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{J} = \underline{\oint \vec{dl} \cdot \nabla \frac{(\vec{J})^2}{2} = 0}$$

Then  $\frac{d\Gamma}{dt} = \oint \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} dl$

From the Euler's equation

$$\frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = - \text{grad } W \Rightarrow \frac{d\Gamma}{dt} = - \oint \nabla W dl = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\boxed{\oint \vec{J} dt = \text{const}}$$

Conservation of circulation (Kelvin's theorem 1869)

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Using Stokes theorem<sup>for an infinitesimal closed contour</sup> we can rewrite

$$\oint \vec{v} \cdot d\vec{l} = \oint \operatorname{rot} \vec{v} \cdot d\vec{S} \simeq \vec{S} \cdot \operatorname{rot} \vec{v} = \text{const}$$

here  $\vec{S}$  is a fluid surface element spanning

the contour and  $\operatorname{rot} \vec{v} = \vec{\omega}$  is vorticity

For incompressible fluid area is unchanged.

Then one can interpret  $\vec{S} \cdot \operatorname{rot} \vec{v} = \text{const}$

as the vorticity moves with the fluid

(Helmholtz theorem)

More rigorously, the distance between  
two fluid particles satisfies equation

$$\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} = (\vec{r} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{v}$$

We will see that the vorticity  $\vec{\omega}$

satisfies the same equation

Indeed, taking rot of the Euler's equation (108)  
we obtain

$$\frac{\partial \vec{J}}{\partial t} = \text{rot}[\vec{\omega} \times \vec{J}]$$

Using  $\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{A} + \vec{B}) = \vec{A} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B}) - \vec{B} \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) + \vec{B}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A}) - \vec{A}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B})$

we obtain

$\text{rot}(\vec{\omega} + \vec{J}) = (\vec{J} \cdot \vec{\nabla})\vec{\omega} - (\vec{\omega} \cdot \vec{\nabla})\vec{J} - \vec{\omega}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}) + \vec{J}(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J})$

Since for incompressible fluid  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = 0$  and  
 $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = \text{div rot } \vec{\omega} = 0$  as well, we arrive at

$\frac{\partial \vec{J}}{\partial t} + (\vec{\omega} \cdot \vec{\nabla})\vec{J} = (\vec{J} \cdot \vec{\nabla})\vec{\omega}$  or

$\frac{d\vec{J}}{dt} = (\vec{J} \cdot \vec{\nabla})\vec{\omega}$

Which is the same equation as one for the  
distance between two fluid particles.

## Vortex lines

For homogeneously rotated fluid

$$\vec{\Omega} = \text{rot } \vec{\omega} = \text{const} \Rightarrow \vec{\omega} = \frac{[\vec{\Omega} \times \vec{r}]}{2}$$

For inhomogeneous situation one can use

magnetic analogy:  $\vec{B} = \text{rot } \vec{A}$ ,  $\text{div } \vec{B} = 0$

Equation for vorticity is the same  $\Rightarrow$   
lines of field  $\vec{\Omega}$  are called vortex line

One can consider individual vortex line  
as velocity field that satisfies

$$\text{rot } \vec{\omega} = \Omega_0 \delta^2(r)$$

For incompressible fluid  $\text{div } \vec{v} = 0 \Rightarrow$

$$\vec{v} = \frac{[\vec{\Omega} \times \vec{r}]}{2\pi r^2}$$

This divergent velocity field should be  
cut off at the distance a which is called  
vortex core radius.

# Incompressible and irrotational flows

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What are conditions for incompressible flow?

When the pressure changes adiabatically

$$\Delta g = \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial P} \right)_S \Delta P = \frac{\Delta P}{c^2}$$

Where the sound velocity  $c = \sqrt{\left( \frac{\partial P}{\partial g} \right)_S}$

Indeed from the longitudinal sound in solids we have  $c_e = \sqrt{\frac{K}{g}}$

Energy is  $\frac{K(\text{div } u)^2}{2} = \frac{K(\delta V)^2}{2} \Rightarrow$

$K = -V^2 \left( \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial V^2} \right)_S = -V^2 \left( \frac{\partial P}{\partial V} \right)_S = g \left( \frac{\partial P}{\partial g} \right)_S \Rightarrow$

$$c^2 = \frac{K}{g} = \left( \frac{\partial P}{\partial g} \right)_S$$

According to Bernoulli's equation

$$\Delta P \sim g V^2 \Rightarrow \Delta g = \frac{\Delta P}{c^2} \sim g \frac{V^2}{c^2}$$

Thus  $\frac{\delta g}{g} \ll 1$  is equivalent to  $v \ll c \Rightarrow$  (1)  
 fluid velocity should be much less than  
 the sound velocity.

In nonsteady flow we should estimate

$\frac{\partial g}{\partial t} \approx \frac{\delta g}{\tau}$  where  $\tau$  is the typical  
 time scale of velocity change ( $l$  - length scale)

$$\text{Then } \frac{\partial g}{\partial t} \approx \frac{\delta g}{\tau} \sim \frac{\delta P}{\tau c^2} \sim \frac{g v l}{\tau^2 c^2}$$

In the last estimate we used  $\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} \approx \frac{\nabla v}{l}$ .

$\frac{\partial g}{\partial t}$  can be neglected compared with  $g v l \sim \frac{g v^2}{c^2}$   
 in the continuity equation if  
 $\tau \gg l/c$

Since sound equilibrates densities in different  
 points all processes must be slow to  
 let sound pass.

For irrotational flow ( $\Leftrightarrow$  potential flow) (112)

$$\text{rot } \vec{\omega} = 0$$

everywhere in the space

Then we can define velocity potential

$$\vec{v} = \text{grad } \varphi$$

The Euler's equation can be rewritten as

$$\text{grad} \left( \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} + \frac{v^2}{2} + W \right) = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} + \frac{v^2}{2} + W = f(t)$$

$f(t)$  is an arbitrary function of time that can be absorbed in the potential  $\varphi \Rightarrow$

$$\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} + \frac{v^2}{2} + W = 0$$

Bernoulli's equation is then for steady flow

$$\frac{v^2}{2} + W = \text{const}$$

where const is the same not only along the streamline but everywhere throughout the fluid

Absence of vorticity provides a huge simplification. (113)

Unfortunately irrotational flows are less frequent as one would guess.

The main reason is that the viscous boundary layers near solid boundaries generate vorticity as we will see later. Still large portion of fluid often can be described as irrotational.

Another example - small oscillations (waves or small oscillation of an immersed body).

Then we can neglect the nonlinear term

$(\mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{v}$  and the Euler's equation is

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial t} = -\nabla P$$

Taking curl we see that  $\nabla \times \mathbf{v}$  is conserved but its average is zero in oscillating motion  $\Rightarrow \text{rot } \mathbf{v} = 0$

For potential flow of incompressible fluid

(114)

$$\operatorname{div} \vec{v} = 0, \quad \operatorname{rot} \vec{v} = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{v} = \operatorname{grad} \varphi$$

and

$$\nabla^2 \varphi = 0$$

Laplace equation (derived by Euler before Laplace)

Boundary condition at fixed solid surfaces

$$\Rightarrow v_n = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial n} = 0$$

Solving Laplace's equation for  $\varphi$  we can use electrostatic analogy.

Consider for example sphere moving in a fluid with velocity  $\vec{u}$

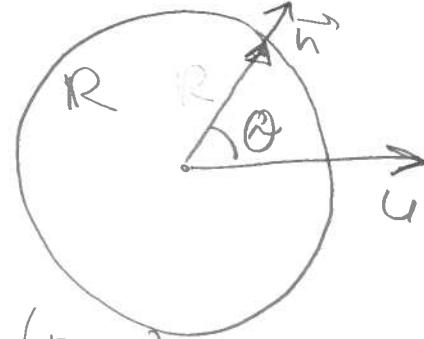
Solutions of Laplace's equation that vanishes at infinity are  $\frac{1}{r}$  and  $\frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right)$

Because of the complete symmetry of the sphere it is characterized by a single vector  $\vec{u}$  of its velocity. Linearity requires that  $\psi \propto \vec{u}$  and the only scalar one can make out of  $\vec{u}$  and derivatives of  $\frac{1}{r}$  is

$$\psi = A \left( \vec{u} \cdot \nabla \frac{1}{r} \right) = -A \frac{(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{n})}{r^2} \quad (\text{dipolar})$$

where  $\vec{n} = \frac{\vec{r}}{r}$

$$\vec{v} = \nabla \psi = A \frac{(3\vec{n}(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{n}) - \vec{u})}{r^3}$$



At the surface of the sphere ( $r=R$ )

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{n} = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{n} = u \cos \theta \quad \text{then multiplying by } \vec{n}$$

we get  $A = \frac{R^3}{2} \Rightarrow$

$$\psi = -\frac{R^3}{2r^2} (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{n}) \quad (\text{Stokes 1843})$$

$$\vec{v} = \frac{R^3}{2r^3} (3\vec{n}(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{n}) - \vec{u})$$

Since for incompressible fluid we can (116)  
 replace  $\nabla$  by  $\frac{P}{\rho}$  then pressure can be  
 calculated from

$$P = P_0 - \frac{\rho u^2}{2} - \rho \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t}$$

Since solution moves with the sphere

- $\varphi = \varphi(\vec{r} - \vec{u}t, \vec{u})$

then  $\frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial \vec{u}} \cdot \dot{\vec{u}} - \vec{u} \cdot \text{grad } \varphi$  which gives

$$P = P_0 + \rho u^2 (9 \cos^2 \theta - 5)/8 + \rho R \vec{n} \cdot \dot{\vec{u}}$$

Note, that for uniformly moving sphere

- $\dot{\vec{u}} = 0$  and the force  $\oint p \cdot d\vec{s} = 0$