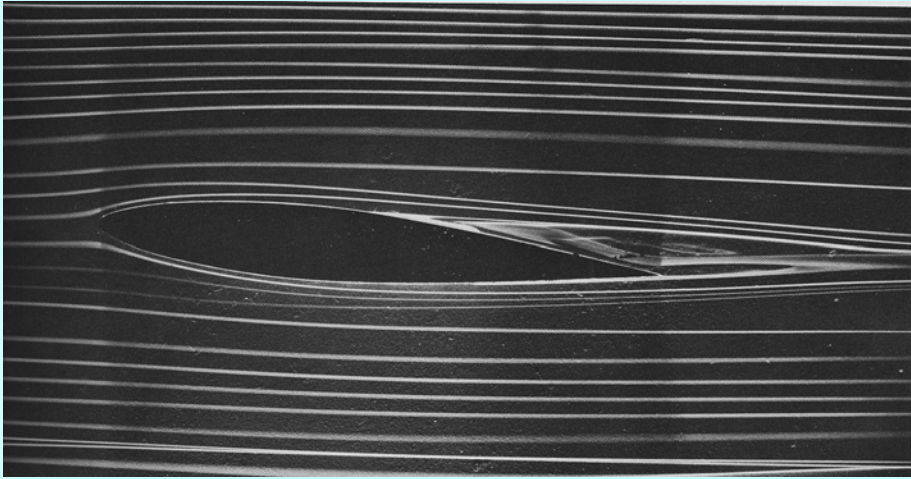


Introduction to Fluid Dynamics



Roger K. Smith

Skript - auf englisch!

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Aim

- To provide a survey of basic concepts in fluid dynamics as a preliminary to the study of dynamical meteorology.
- Based on a more extensive course of lectures prepared by **Professor B. R. Morton** of Monash University, Australia.
- A useful reference is: **D. J. Acheson**

Description of fluid flow

- The description of a fluid flow requires a specification or determination of the **velocity field**, i.e. a specification of the fluid velocity at every point in the region.

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}(x, t)$$

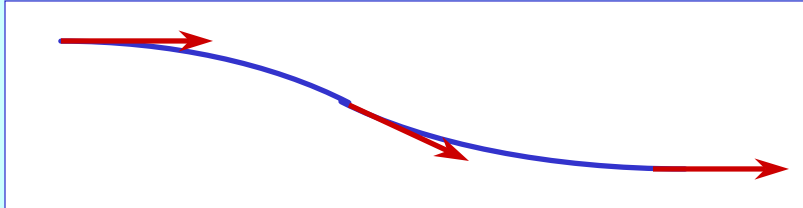
- In general, this will define a **vector field** of position and time.
- **Steady flow** occurs when \mathbf{u} is independent of time - i.e.

$$\partial \mathbf{u} / \partial t \equiv 0$$

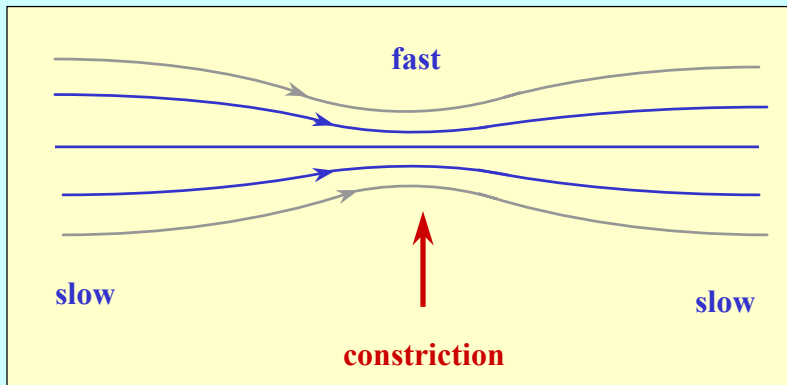
- Otherwise the flow is **unsteady**.

Streamlines

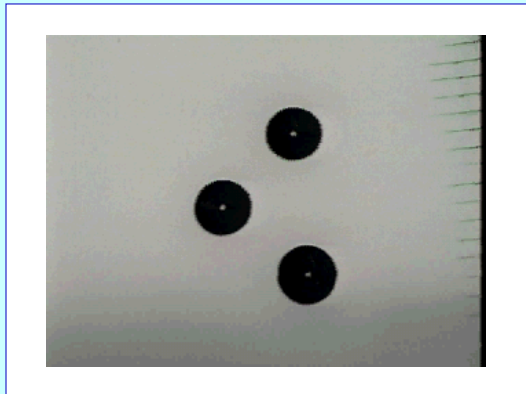
- **Streamlines** - lines which at a given instant are everywhere in the direction of the velocity (analogous to electric or magnetic field lines).



- In steady flow the streamlines are independent of time, but the velocity can vary in magnitude along a streamline (as in flow through a constriction in a pipe).



Streamlines



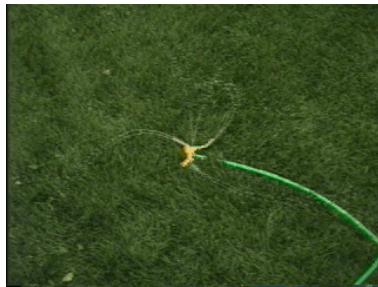
Particle paths

- **Particle paths** are lines traced out by "marked" particles as time evolves.
- In **steady flow** particle paths are identical to streamlines.
- In **unsteady flow** they are different, and sometimes very different.
- Particle paths are visualized in the laboratory using small floating particles of the same density as the fluid.
- Sometimes they are referred to as **trajectories**.

Filament lines or streaklines

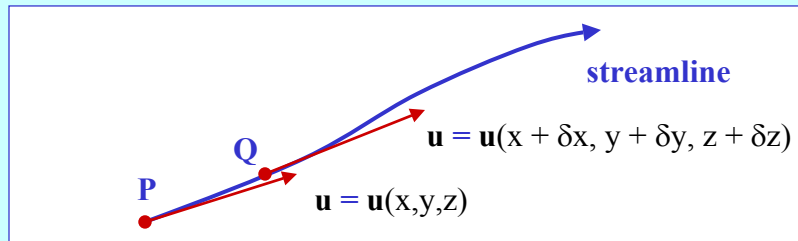
- **Filament lines or streaklines** are traced out over time by all particles passing through a given point.
- They may be visualized, for example, using a hypodermic needle and releasing a slow stream of dye.
- **In steady flow these are streamlines.**
- **In unsteady flow they are neither streamlines nor particle paths.**

Streaklines



Equations for streamlines

- The streamline through the point P, say (x,y,z) , has the direction of $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}(x,y,z)$.



$$\delta x = u \delta t, \quad \delta y = v \delta t, \quad \delta z = w \delta t$$



$$\frac{dx}{u} = \frac{dy}{v} = \frac{dz}{w}$$

Parametric representation of the streamlines

$$\int \frac{dx}{u} = \int dt, \quad \int \frac{dy}{v} = \int dt, \quad \int \frac{dz}{w} = \int dt$$

Example: Find the streamlines for the velocity field $\mathbf{u} = (-\Omega y, \Omega x, 0)$, where Ω is a constant

Solution

$$\frac{dx}{-\Omega y} = \frac{dy}{\Omega x} = \frac{dz}{0}$$

$$\int \Omega(xdx + ydy) = 0$$



$$x^2 + y^2 = \Gamma(z)$$

Γ an arbitrary function

$$\int dz = 0$$



$$z = \text{constant}$$

Streamlines are circles $x^2 + y^2 = c^2$, on planes $z = \text{constant}$

Fluids as continuous media

- Fluids are molecular in nature, but they can be treated as **continuous media** for most practical purposes.
- The exception is rarefied gases.

Compressibility

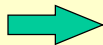
- Real fluids generally show some **compressibility** defined as

$$\kappa = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{d\rho}{dp} = \frac{\text{changes in density per unit change in pressure}}{\text{density}}$$

- At normal atmospheric flow speeds, the compressibility of air is a relative small effect and for liquids it is generally negligible.
- The exception is rarefied gases.
- Note that sound waves owe their existence to compressibility effects as do "supersonic bangs", produced by aircraft flying faster than sound.

Incompressible fluids

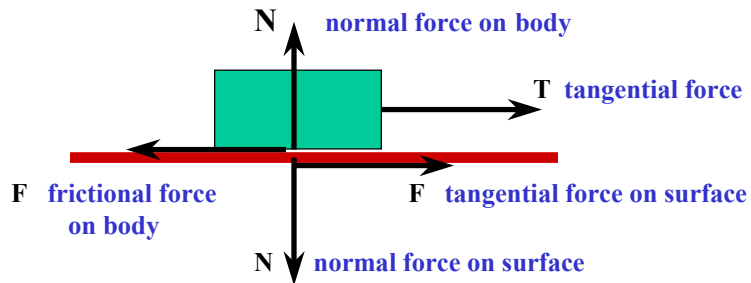
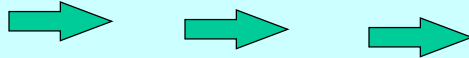
- For many purposes it is accurate to assume our fluids are **incompressible**, i.e. they suffer no change in density with pressure
- For the present we shall assume also that they are **homogeneous**



density $\rho = \text{constant}$

Friction in solids

- When one solid body slides over another, frictional forces act between them to reduce the relative motion.
- Friction acts also when layers of fluid flow over one another.
- When two solid bodies are in contact (more precisely when there is a normal force acting between them) at rest, there is a threshold tangential force *below which* relative motion will not occur. It is called the **limiting friction**.
- **Example:** a solid body resting on a flat surface under the action of gravity.



- As T is increased from zero, $F = T$ until $T = \mu N$.
- The coefficient of limiting friction, μ depends on the degree of roughness between the surface.
- For $T > \mu N$, the body will overcome the frictional force and accelerate.

Fluids compared with solids

- A distinguishing characteristic of most fluids is their inability to support tangential stresses between layers without motion occurring; i.e. there is no analogue of limiting friction.
- **Exception:** certain types of so-called **visco-elastic fluids** e.g. paint.

A visco-elastic fluid

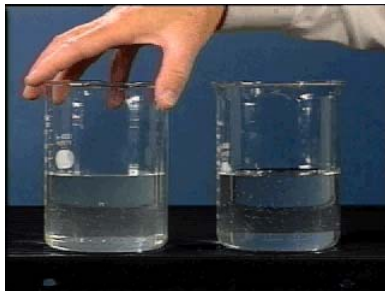


A mixture of water and corn starch, when placed on a flat surface, flows as a thick, viscous fluid. However, when the mixture is rapidly disturbed, it appears to fracture and behave more like a solid.

Friction in fluids

- **Fluid friction** is characterized by **viscosity** which is a measure of the magnitude of tangential frictional forces in flows with velocity gradients.
- Viscous forces are important in many flows, but least important in flow past "**streamlined**" bodies.
- We shall be concerned mainly with inviscid flows where friction is not important.
- It is essential to acquire some idea of the sort of flow in which friction may be neglected without completely misrepresenting the behaviour. **Its neglect is risky!**

Viscosity



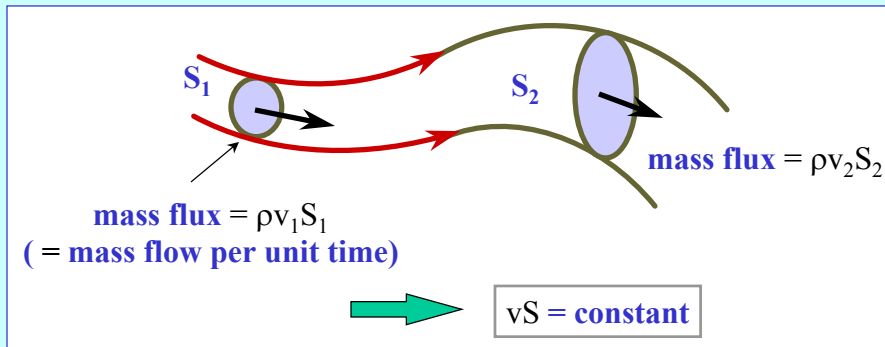
Water

Silicone oil

10,000 times more viscous

Incompressible flow

- Consider a **stream tube** - an element of fluid bounded by a "tube of streamlines".



- In **steady flow**, no fluid can cross the walls of the tube (they are everywhere in the direction of flow).

In the limit, for stream tubes of small cross-section,
 $vS = \text{constant}$ along an elementary stream tube.

Where streamlines contract the velocity increases, where they expand it decreases.



The streamline pattern contains a great deal of information about the velocity distribution.

All vector fields with the property that

(vector magnitude) * (area of tube)

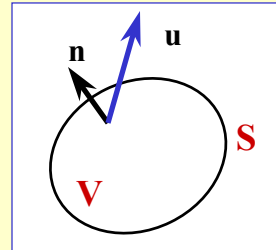
remains constant along a tube are called **solenoidal**.

The velocity field for an incompressible fluid is solenoidal.

Conservation of mass - the continuity equation

Apply the divergence theorem

$$\int_V \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} dV = \int_S \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} ds$$



to an arbitrarily chosen volume V with closed surface S .

Assume: incompressible fluid and no mass sources or sinks within S .



There can be neither continuing accumulation of fluid within V nor continuing loss.



The net flux of fluid across the surface S must be zero, i.e.,

$$\int_S \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{n} dS = 0$$



$$\int_V \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} dV = 0$$



This holds for an arbitrary volume V



$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$

This is the continuity equation for a homogeneous, incompressible fluid.

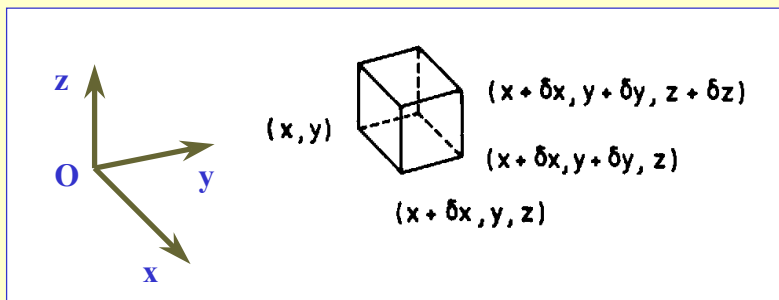
Equation of motion for an inviscid homogeneous fluid

- The equation of motion is an expression of Newton's second law of motion:

$$\text{mass} \times \text{acceleration} = \text{force}$$

- To apply this law we must focus our attention on a particular element of fluid.

We consider a small rectangular element which at time t has vertex at $P [= (x, y, z)]$ and edges of length $\delta x, \delta y, \delta z$.

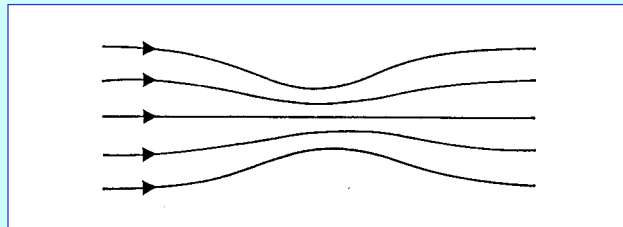
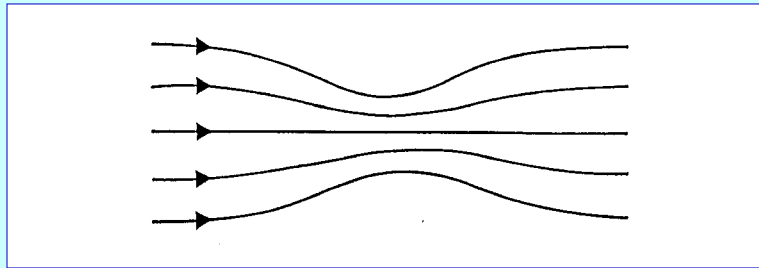


The mass of this element is $\rho \delta x \delta y \delta z$.

Assume ρ constant

ρ is the fluid density
= mass per unit volume

- The velocity in the fluid, $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}(x, y, z, t)$ is a function both of position (x, y, z) and time t .
- From this we must derive a formula for the acceleration of the element of fluid which is changing its position with time.
- **Example:** Consider steady flow through a constriction in a pipe.



- Fluid elements must accelerate into the constriction as the streamlines close in and decelerate beyond as they open out again.
- Thus, in general, the acceleration of an element (i.e., the rate-of-change of \mathbf{u} with time for that element) includes a rate-of-change at a fixed position $\partial\mathbf{u}/\partial t$ plus a change associated with its change of position with time.
- I will derive an expression for the total rate-of-change shortly.

Forces acting on the fluid element

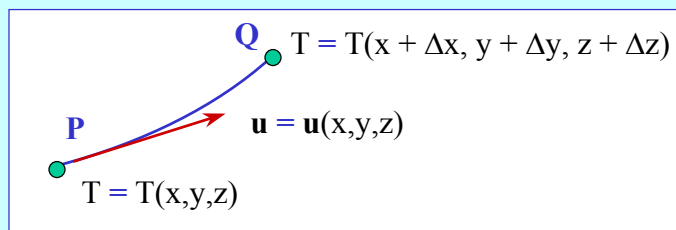
The forces acting on the elements δx , δy , δz consist of:

- (i) **body forces**, which are forces per unit mass acting throughout the fluid because of external causes, such as the gravitational **weight**, and
- (ii) **contact forces** acting across the surface of the element from adjacent elements.

These are discussed further below.

Rate-of-change moving with the fluid

- Consider first the rate-of-change of a scalar property, for example the temperature of a fluid, $T = T(x, y, z, t)$, following a fluid element.
- Suppose that an element of fluid moves from $P [= (x, y, z)]$ at time t to $Q [= (x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y, z + \Delta z)]$ at time $t + \Delta t$.



- If we stay at a particular point (x_0, y_0, z_0) , then T is effectively a function of t only.
- If we move with the fluid, $T(x,y,z,t)$ is a function both of position (x,y,z) and time t .



The total change in T between P and Q in time Δt is

$$\Delta T = T_Q - T_P = T(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y, z + \Delta z, t + \Delta t) - T(x, y, z, t)$$



The total rate of change of T moving with the fluid is

$$\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta T}{\Delta t} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{T(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y, z + \Delta z, t + \Delta t) - T(x, y, z, t)}{\Delta t}$$

For small increments x, y, z, t we may use a Taylor expansion

$$T(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y, z + \Delta z, t + \Delta t) - T(x, y, z, t) + \left[\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \right]_P \Delta t + \left[\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right]_P \Delta x + \left[\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right]_P \Delta y + \left[\frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \right]_P \Delta z + \text{higher order terms in } \Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z, \Delta t.$$



The rate-of-change moving with the fluid element

$$= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \Delta t + \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \Delta x + \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \Delta y + \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \Delta z \right] / \Delta t$$

$$= \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial T}{\partial z}, \quad \text{since higher order terms} \rightarrow 0.$$

Note that $u = dx/dt, v = dy/dt, w = dz/dt$, where $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$ is the coordinate vector of the moving fluid element.

Total rate-of-change moving with the fluid

To emphasize that we mean the **total rate of change moving with the fluid** we write

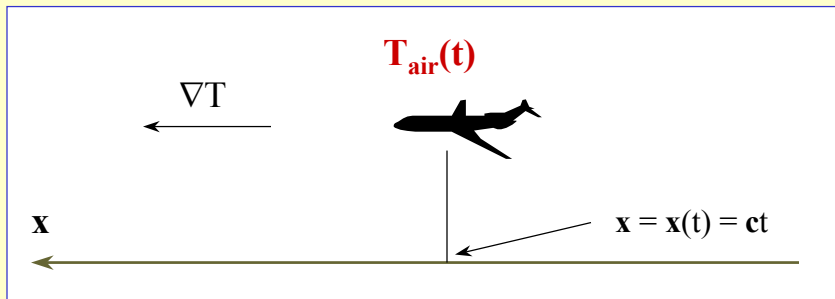
$$\frac{DT}{Dt} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial T}{\partial z}$$

the **local rate-of-change** with time at a fixed position

$$u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla T$$

is the **advective rate-of-change** associated with the movement of the fluid element

Imagine that one is flying in an aeroplane that is moving with velocity $\mathbf{c}(t) = (dx/dt, dy/dt, dz/dt)$ and that one is measuring the air temperature with a thermometer mounted on the aeroplane.



If the air temperature changes both with space and time, the rate-of-change of temperature that we would measure from the aeroplane would be

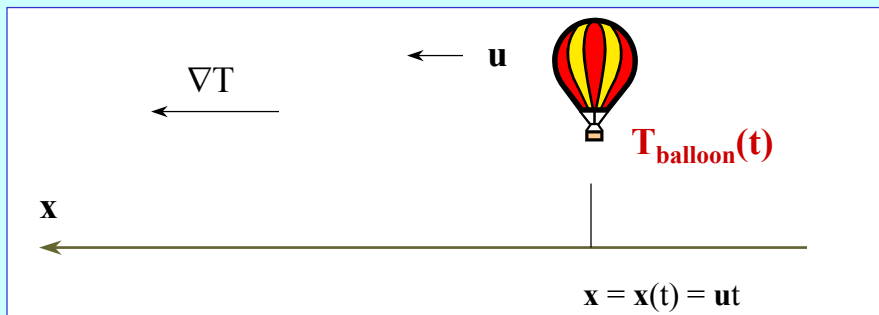
$$\frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \mathbf{c} \cdot \nabla T$$

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \mathbf{c} \cdot \nabla T$$

The rate at which the temperature is varying **locally**; i.e., at a fixed point in space.

The rate-of-change that we observe on account of our motion through a spatially-varying temperature field.

Suppose that we move through the air at a speed exactly equal to the local flow speed \mathbf{u} , i.e., we move with an air parcel as in a balloon.



The rate-of-change of any quantity related to the air parcel, for example its temperature or its x -component of velocity is given by $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla$ operating on the quantity in question.

The total derivative

We call $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla$ **the total derivative** and often use the notation D/Dt for it.

Thus the x-component of acceleration of the fluid parcel is

$$\frac{Du}{Dt} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla u$$

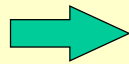
while the rate at which its potential temperature changes is expressed by

$$\frac{D\theta}{Dt} = \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \theta$$

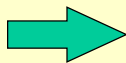
Case of potential temperature

In many situations, θ is **conserved following a fluid parcel**, i.e.,

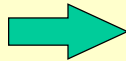
$$\frac{D\theta}{Dt} = 0$$



$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = -\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \theta$$



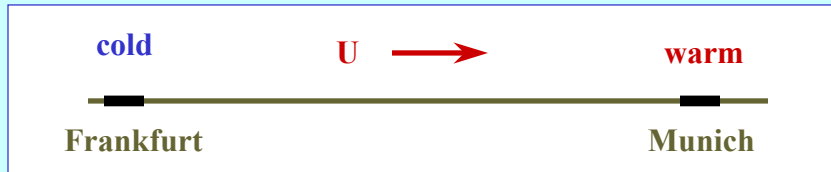
The rate-of-change of potential temperature at a point is due entirely to advection.



The change occurs solely because fluid parcels arriving at the point come from a place where the potential temperature is different.

Example

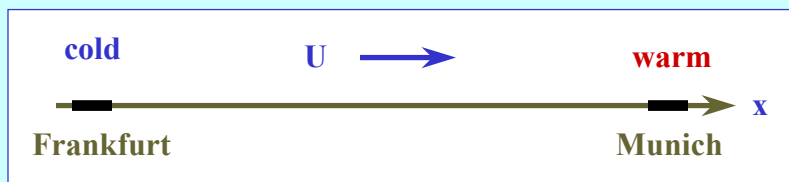
Suppose that there is a uniform potential temperature gradient of $-1^{\circ}\text{C}/100\text{ km}$ between Munich and Frankfurt, i.e. the air temperature in Frankfurt is cooler.



- If the wind blows directly from Frankfurt to Munich, the potential temperature in Munich will **fall** steadily at a rate proportional to the wind speed and to the temperature gradient.
- If the air temperature in Frankfurt is higher than in Munich, then the potential temperature in Munich will **rise**.

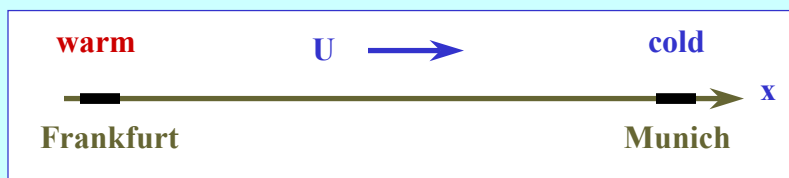
cold air advection

$$\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial t} = -U \frac{\partial\theta}{\partial x} < 0$$



warm air advection

$$\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial t} = -U \frac{\partial\theta}{\partial x} > 0$$



Example

Show that
$$\frac{D\mathbf{F}}{Dt} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial t} + (\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{F}$$

represents the **total rate-of-change of any vector field \mathbf{F} moving with the fluid velocity (velocity field \mathbf{u}), and in particular that the acceleration (or total change in \mathbf{u} moving with the fluid) is**

$$\frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + (\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{u}$$

Solution

The previous result for the rate-of-change of a scalar field can be applied to each of the component of \mathbf{F} , or to each of the velocity components (u,v,w) and these results follow at once.

Example

Show that
$$\frac{D\mathbf{r}}{Dt} = \mathbf{u}$$

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{D\mathbf{r}}{Dt} &= \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial t} + (\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{r} \\ &= 0 + \left(u \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + w \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) (x, y, z) \\ &= (u, v, w) \end{aligned}$$

as x, y, z, t are independent variables.

Question

Are the two x-components in rectangular Cartesian coordinates,

$$(\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u})_x \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\nabla \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{u}^2\right)_x$$

the same or different?

Note that
$$(\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{u} = \nabla \left(\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{u}^2\right) - \mathbf{u} \wedge \boldsymbol{\omega}$$