

# Lecture Notes on Fluid Dynamics

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# 1 Warm-up: poor man's approach to Fluid Dynamics

This simple approach is capable of quite a few important applications!

## 1.1 Leonardo's Law: mass conservation

What streams into a volume has to stream out again.

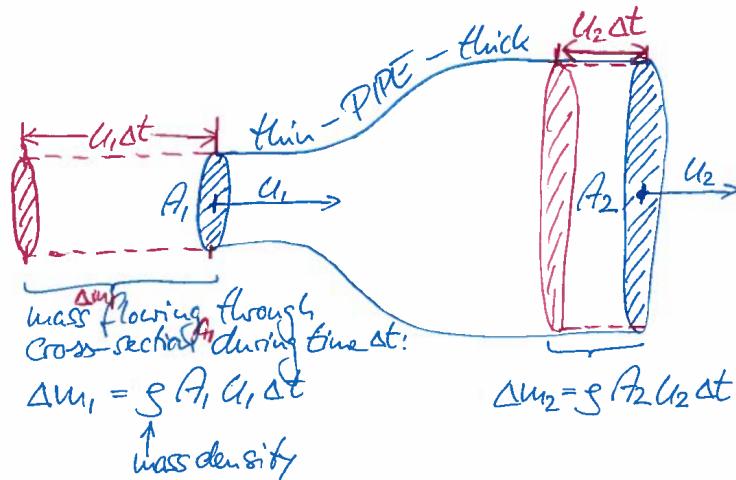


Figure 1: An illustration of mass conservation.

Mass conservation means that the inflow on the left side must equal the outflow on the right side. That is

$$\Delta m_1 = \Delta m_2 \quad (1.1)$$

↓

$$\rho A_1 u_1 \Delta t = \rho A_2 u_2 \Delta t \quad (1.2)$$

↓

$$A_1 u_1 = A_2 u_2 \quad (1.3)$$

Here (1.3) is known as Leonardo's Law. It has the following properties:

$$A_1 < A_2 \Rightarrow u_1 > u_2 \quad (1.4)$$

$$A_1 > A_2 \Rightarrow u_1 < u_2. \quad (1.5)$$

### 1.1.1 Example 1: why is it always windy on Aarhus Ø?

In front of the houses:

$$\Delta m_1 = \rho_{\text{air}} A_1 u_1 \Delta t \quad (1.6)$$

Between the two houses:

$$\Delta m_2 = \rho_{\text{air}} A_2 u_2 \Delta t \quad (1.7)$$

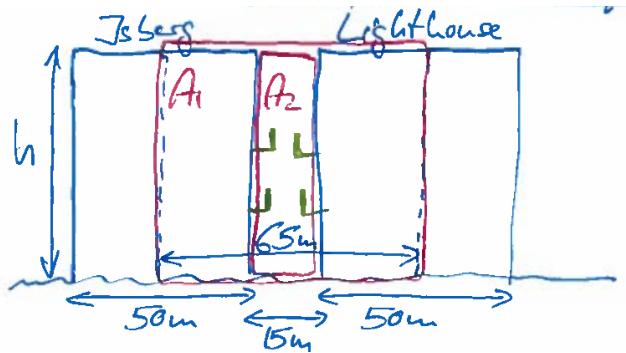


Figure 2: The gap between adjacent apartment buildings seen from the side.

Equating (1.6) and (1.7) gives

$$u_2 = \frac{A_1}{A_2} u_1 \quad (1.8)$$

Plugging in "realistic" numbers:

$$u_2 = \frac{65 \text{ m} \cdot h}{15 \text{ m} \cdot h} \cdot 10 \text{ m/s} = 43.3 \text{ m/s} \quad (1.9)$$

**Question:** Why balconies?

**Answer:** Architects are not engineers/physicists!

### 1.1.2 Example 2: falling stream of liquid

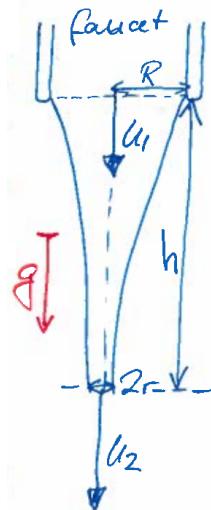


Figure 3: A stream of falling liquid.

We use Leonardo's law:

$$\pi R^2 u_1 = \pi r^2 u_2 \quad (1.10)$$

Energy conservation tells us that the sum of kinetic and potential energy is conserved:

$$\frac{m}{2} u_2^2 = \frac{m}{2} u_1^2 + mgh \quad (1.11)$$

↓

$$u_2^2 = u_1^2 + 2gh, \quad (1.12)$$

where  $g = 9.82 \text{ m/S}^2$  is the acceleration of gravity.

$$\frac{r}{R} = \left( \frac{\pi r^2}{\pi R^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left( \frac{A_2}{A_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left( \frac{u_1}{u_2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (1.13)$$

$$= \left( \frac{u_1^2}{u_2^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} = \left( \frac{u_1^2}{u_1^2 + 2gh} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} \quad (1.14)$$

Remark: The narrowing of a falling stream of liquid holds only for the upper part of the stream. At some height  $h$  the stream becomes too thin and drop formation sets in.

### 1.1.3 Example 3: wave energy converter

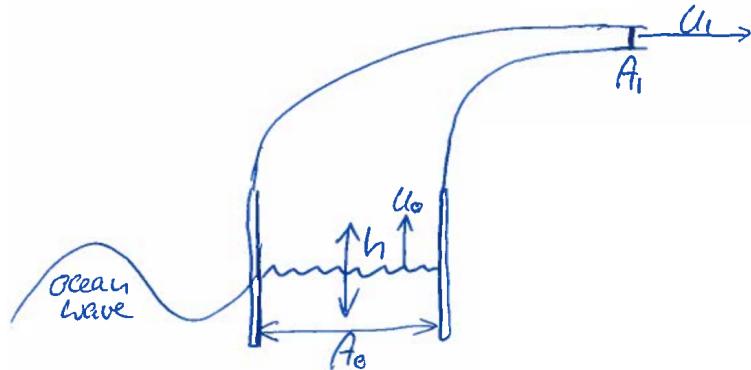


Figure 4: Schematic of a wave energy converter.

The ocean waves induce an oscillating water surface height, which induces an oscillating air stream. A turbine is placed at the nozzle (with cross-section  $A_1 \ll A_0$ ) and extracts power from the moving air stream.

Oscillating height:

$$h(t) = H \sin \omega t, \quad \omega = 2\pi f = \frac{2\pi}{T}, \quad (1.15)$$

where  $f$  is the frequency,  $T$  is the oscillating period and  $\omega$  is the angular frequency.

$$u_0(t) = \frac{dh(t)}{dt} \quad (1.16)$$

$$= H\omega \cos \omega t \quad (1.17)$$

$$A_0 u_0(t) = A_1 u_1(t) \quad (1.18)$$

↓

$$u_1(t) = \frac{A_0}{A_1} u_0 \cos \omega t \quad (1.19)$$

$$A_1 \ll A_0 \Rightarrow u_1(t) \gg u_0(t) \quad (1.20)$$

#### 1.1.4 Example 4: wake flow behind a wind turbine and wind farm optimization

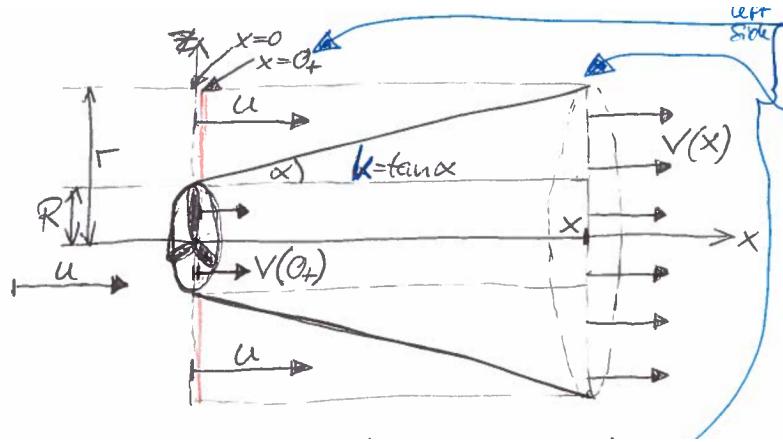


Figure 5: The expanding wake behind a turbine.

Far-field modeling of a wake flow behind a wind turbine. We use the linear wake expansion:

$$r = R + kx. \quad (1.21)$$

We use the equation of continuity (Leonardo's law):

$$\frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t} \Big|_{x=0^+} = \rho \pi R^2 v(0^+) + \rho \pi (r^2 - R^2) u = \rho \pi r^2 v(x) = \frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t} \Big|_x. \quad (1.22)$$

In words this equation states that the in-flow through the left side of the cylinder is equal to the out-flow through the right side of the cylinder. Rearranging this equation we can get an expression for the wind speed of the wake behind the

turbine:

$$v(x) = \frac{R^2}{r^2} v(0_+) + \frac{r^2 - R^2}{r^2} u = u - \frac{R^2}{r^2} (u - v(0_+)) \quad (1.23)$$

$$= u \left\{ 1 - \frac{1 - \frac{v(0_+)}{u}}{\left(1 + \frac{kx}{R}\right)^2} \right\}. \quad (1.24)$$

The ratio

$$q = \frac{v(0_+)}{u} \quad (1.25)$$

is called the axial induction factor.

Consistency checks:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0_+} v(x) = v(0_+) \quad (1.26)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} v(x) = u \quad (1.27)$$

### Betz theory: power produced by a wind turbine

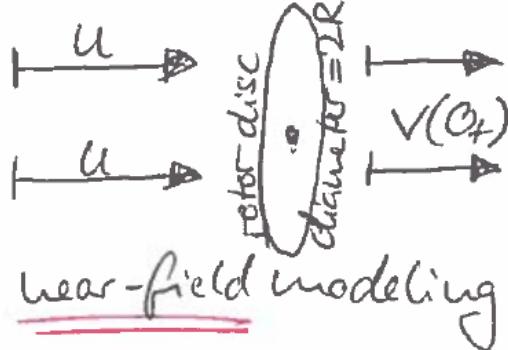


Figure 6: The velocity deficit caused by the rotor disc.

A wind turbine extracts kinetic energy out of the wind flow:

$$E_{\text{extracted}} = \frac{m}{2} (u^2 - v^2(0_+)) \quad (1.28)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \rho \pi R^2 \frac{u + v(0_+)}{2} \Delta t (u^2 - v^2(0_+)) \quad (1.29)$$

$$P_{\text{turbine}} = \frac{dE_{\text{extracted}}}{dt} \quad (1.30)$$

$$= \frac{\rho \pi R^2 u^3}{2} \left\{ \frac{(1+q)}{2} (1-q^2) \right\} \quad (1.31)$$

The term in front is the kinetic energy contained in the upstream wind (volume). The term within the curly brackets is the efficiency of the wind turbine also called the power coefficient:

$$C_p = C_p(q) = \frac{(1+q)}{2} (1 - q^2). \quad (1.32)$$

The maximum efficiency of a turbine can be calculated by requiring

$$\frac{dC_p(q)}{dq} = \frac{d}{dq} \left( \frac{1}{2}(1+q)(1 - q^2) \right) \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \quad (1.33)$$

This gives the optimal  $q$  value

$$q = \frac{1}{3} \quad (1.34)$$

$$\Downarrow \\ v(0_+) = \frac{1}{3}u. \quad (1.35)$$

We can then calculate the power coefficient

$$\max_q C_p(q) = C_p(q = \frac{1}{3}) = \frac{16}{27} \approx 0.59. \quad (1.36)$$

This is known as the Betz limit. Real turbines have about  $C_p \approx 0.40 - 0.50$ .

### 1.1.5 Power optimization of a two-turbine wind farm

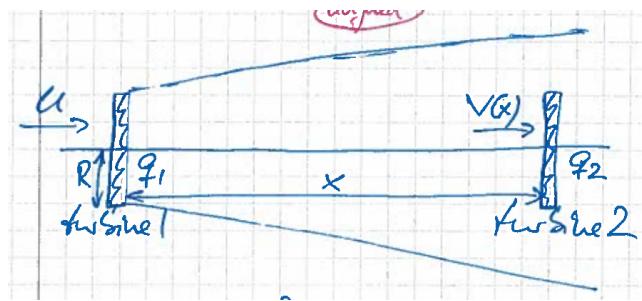


Figure 7: A very simple wind farm consisting of two turbines. The wind is approaching from the left.

We look at a wind farm with two turbines and a wind direction aligned along the connecting line. The total output of the two turbines is

$$P_{1+2} = \frac{\rho\pi R^2}{2} C_{p1}(q_1) u^3 + \frac{\rho\pi R^2}{2} C_{p2}(q_2) v^3(x) \quad (1.37)$$

There are no turbines behind turbine 2, so we configure it to extract the maximum amount of energy from the wind

$$q_2 = \frac{1}{3} \Rightarrow C_{p2}(q_2) = \frac{16}{27} \quad (1.38)$$

Using previous expressions for  $C_p(q)$  (1.33) and  $v(x)$  (1.24) the total output of the two turbines is

$$P_{1+2} = \frac{\rho\pi R^2}{2} u^3 \left\{ \frac{1}{2}(1+q_1)(1-q_1^2) + \frac{16}{27} \left[ 1 - \frac{1-q_1}{\left(1+\frac{kx}{R}\right)} \right]^3 \right\} \quad (1.39)$$

Similar to before we find the optimal value of  $q_1$  by the requirement

$$\frac{dP_{1+2}}{dq_1} \stackrel{!}{=} 0. \quad (1.40)$$

We fix the values

$$\begin{aligned} k &= 0.04 \\ \frac{x}{R} &= 8. \end{aligned}$$

The optimal  $q$ -value for turbine 1 is then

$$q_1 = 0.58 > \frac{1}{3}, \quad (1.41)$$

so turbine 1 let's through more wind.

Comparing this result with a  $q$ -value of  $\frac{1}{3}$  gives

$$P_{1+2}(q_1 = 0.58) = 1.07 \cdot P_{1+2} \left( q_1 = \frac{1}{3} \right), \quad (1.42)$$

which is a 7% gain.

## 2 Derivation of Navier-Stokes equation

The goal of this section is to find an equation, which describes the spatio-temporal evolution of the velocity field  $\vec{u}(\vec{r}, t)$ . This is the Navier-Stokes equation, which is the most fundamental equation in Fluid Dynamics.

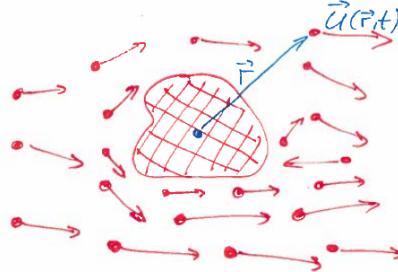


Figure 8: Velocity field around an object.

We want to describe the motion of a fluid particle. We start with Newton's second law of Classical Mechanics

$$\vec{F} = \frac{d}{dt} (m\vec{u}). \quad (2.1)$$

The equation states that the forces acting on the particle equals its change (the time derivative) of momentum (the parenthesis).

**Remark:** in Fluid Dynamics we look not only at one fluid particle, but at all fluid particles.

$$\frac{d}{dt} (m\vec{u}) = \frac{dm}{dt} \vec{u} + m \frac{d\vec{u}}{dt} = \rho \Delta V \frac{d\vec{u}}{dt}. \quad (2.2)$$

The mass of a fluid particle is constant and does not change over time, hence the time derivative term is zero. We also used the relation

$$m = \rho \Delta V. \quad (2.3)$$

Given the field description  $\vec{u} = \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t)$ , we have to be a little careful with  $\frac{d\vec{u}}{dt}$ . The following is wrong:

$$\frac{d\vec{u}}{dt} = \frac{d\vec{u}(\vec{r}, t)}{dt} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\vec{u}(\vec{r}, t + \Delta t) - \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t)}{\Delta t} \quad (2.4)$$

See the example in Figure 9.

The correct approach is to follow one fluid particle on its pathline (trajectory)  $\vec{r} = \vec{r}(\vec{r}_0, t_0; t)$ . See Figure 10.

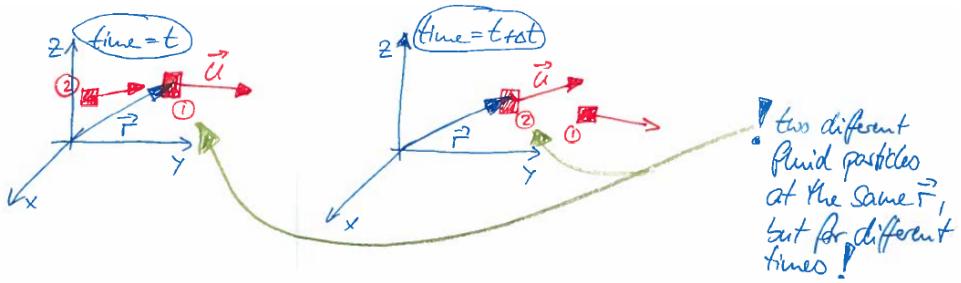


Figure 9: Two fluid particles can have the same coordinate vector  $\vec{r}$  but for different times.

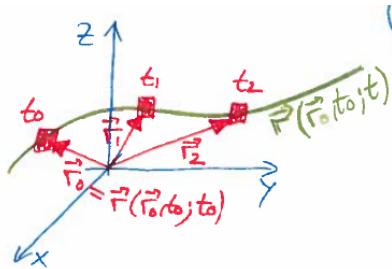


Figure 10: The path and changing coordinates of a single fluid particle.

$$\frac{d\vec{u}}{dt} = \frac{d\vec{u}(\vec{r}(\vec{r}_0, t_0; t), t)}{dt} \quad (2.5)$$

$$= \frac{d\vec{u}(x(\vec{r}_0, t_0; t), y(\vec{r}_0, t_0; t), z(\vec{r}_0, t_0; t))}{dt} \quad (2.6)$$

$$= \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial z} \frac{dz}{dt} + \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} \frac{dt}{dt} \quad (2.7)$$

$$= \left( u_x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + u_y \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + u_z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \vec{u} + \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} \quad (2.8)$$

Short notation for partial derivative:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \partial_x. \quad (2.9)$$

Here  $x$  can be replaced by  $y, z$  or  $t$ .

Short notation for velocity:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = u_x \quad (2.10)$$

The terms in parentheses is the dot product between  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{\nabla} = (\partial_x, \partial_y, \partial_z)$ ,

calculated using the chain rule of differentiation:

$$\frac{du(f(t))}{dt} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial f} \frac{df}{dt} \quad (2.11)$$

$$\frac{du(f(t), g(t))}{dt} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial f} \frac{df}{dt} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial g} \frac{dg}{dt} \quad (2.12)$$

$$\frac{du(f(t), g(t), h(t))}{dt} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial f} \frac{df}{dt} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial g} \frac{dg}{dt} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial h} \frac{dh}{dt}. \quad (2.13)$$

This leads to the final expression

$$\frac{d\vec{u}}{dt} = \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} + (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u}. \quad (2.14)$$

The material derivative is defined as

$$\frac{d}{dt} \partial_t + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla} = \frac{D}{Dt} = D_t. \quad (2.15)$$

Whenever we have the time derivative of a field, like  $\vec{u}(\vec{r}, t)$ , then we have to "go with the fluid particle" and use the material derivative.

We now go back to Newton's second equation:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(m\vec{u}) = \rho \Delta V \left( \partial_t + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \right) \vec{u} = \vec{F} = \vec{F}_{\text{external}} + \vec{F}_{\text{surrounding}} \quad (2.16)$$

The surrounding force can be decomposed into

$$\vec{F}_{\text{surrounding}} = \vec{F}_{\text{pressure}} + \vec{F}_{\text{friction}} \quad (2.17)$$

The surrounding fluid particles push the "sandwiched" fluid particle around; they exert pressure. Mutual friction between neighboring fluid particles due to relative and rotational motion, deformation and compression.

**Example:** The force of gravity is an example of an external force:

$$\vec{F}_{\text{external}} = \vec{F}_{\text{grav}} = \underbrace{\rho \Delta V}_{m} \vec{g} = \rho \vec{g} \Delta V, \quad (2.18)$$

with the gravitational constant defined as

$$\vec{g} = - \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 9.81 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \end{pmatrix} = -g \vec{e}_z. \quad (2.19)$$

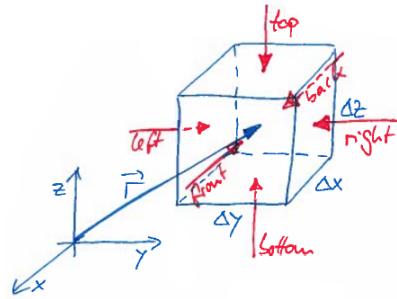


Figure 11: Illustration of the pressure force on each side of a fluid particle.

## 2.1 Pressure force

$$\left( \vec{F}_{\text{pressure}} \right)_z = \vec{F}_{\text{pressure}}^{\text{top}} + \vec{F}_{\text{pressure}}^{\text{bottom}} \quad (2.20)$$

$$= -p \left( x, y, z + \frac{\Delta z}{2} \right) \Delta x \Delta y + p \left( x, y, z - \frac{\Delta z}{2} \right) \Delta x \Delta y \quad (2.21)$$

$$= - \left( p(x, y, z) + \frac{\partial p(x, y, z)}{\partial z} \frac{\Delta z}{2} \right) \Delta x \Delta y \\ + \left( p(x, y, z) + \frac{\partial p(x, y, z)}{\partial z} \left( -\frac{\Delta z}{2} \right) \right) \Delta x \Delta y \quad (2.22)$$

$$= - \frac{\partial p(x, y, z)}{\partial z} \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z \quad (2.23)$$

Using  $\Delta x \Delta y \Delta z = \Delta V$  the pressure force density is

$$\vec{f}_{\text{pressure}} = \frac{\vec{F}_{\text{pressure}}}{\Delta V} = -\vec{\nabla} p(\vec{r}, t) \quad (2.24)$$

## 2.2 Friction force

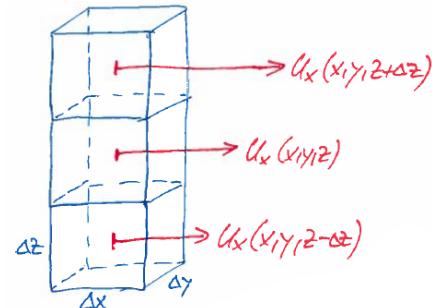


Figure 12: Illustration of the friction force on each side of a fluid particle.

We consider the neighboring fluid particles above and below as sketched in Figure 12.

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\vec{F}_{\text{friction}}^{\text{top+bottom}}\right)_x &= \frac{\mu}{\Delta z} \Delta x \Delta y (u_x(x, y, z + \Delta z) - u_x(x, y, z)) \\ &\quad + \frac{\mu}{\Delta z} \Delta x \Delta y (u_x(x, y, z - \Delta z) - u_x(x, y, z)) \end{aligned} \quad (2.25)$$

If  $u_x(x, y, z + \Delta z) > u_x(x, y, z)$ , then the fluid particle above pulls the sandwiched fluid particle with it.

Taylor series expansion up to second-order terms:

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\vec{F}_{\text{friction}}^{\text{top+bot}}\right)_x &= \mu \Delta x \Delta y \left\{ \frac{u_x(x, y, z + \Delta z) - u_x(x, y, z)}{\Delta z} + \frac{u_x(x, y, z - \Delta z) - u_x(x, y, z)}{\Delta z} \right\} \\ &= \frac{\mu \Delta x \Delta y}{\Delta z} \left\{ u_x(x, y, z) + \frac{\partial u_x(x, y, z)}{\partial z} \Delta z + \frac{\partial^2 u_x(x, y, z)}{\partial z^2} \frac{\Delta z^2}{2} - u_x(x, y, z) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + u_x(x, y, z) + \frac{\partial u_x(x, y, z)}{\partial z} (-\Delta z) + \frac{\partial^2 u_x(x, y, z)}{\partial z^2} \frac{(-\Delta z)^2}{2} - u_x(x, y, z) \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (2.26)$$

$$= \mu \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z \frac{\partial^2 u_x(x, y, z)}{\partial z^2} \quad (2.27)$$

Front + back:

$$\left(\vec{F}_{\text{friction}}^{\text{front+back}}\right)_x = \mu \Delta V \frac{\partial^2 u_x(x, y, z)}{\partial y^2} \quad (2.28)$$

Most general expression of the friction force:

$$\frac{\vec{F}_{\text{friction}}}{\Delta V} = \vec{f}_{\text{friction}} \left( \frac{\partial^2 u_i}{\partial x_k \partial x_l} \right) = \vec{f}_{\text{friction}}(\vec{\nabla}, \vec{\nabla}, \vec{u}) \quad (2.29)$$

The task is to build a vector  $\vec{f}$  from a combination of three vectors  $\vec{a} = \vec{\nabla}$ ,  $\vec{b} = \vec{\nabla}$ ,  $\vec{c} = \vec{u}$ , such that

$$\vec{f} = \alpha (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}) \vec{c} + \beta (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{c}) \vec{b} + \gamma (\vec{b} \cdot \vec{c}) \vec{a} \quad (2.30)$$

The solution:

$$\vec{f}_{\text{friction}} = \mu (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u} + \left( \mu_v + \frac{\mu}{3} \right) \vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u}), \quad (2.31)$$

where  $\mu$  is the shear (dynamic) viscosity and  $\mu_v$  is the compression (bulk) viscosity.  
Navier-Stokes equation:

$$\rho \left( \partial_t + (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \right) \vec{u} = \vec{f}_{\text{ext}} - \vec{\nabla} p + \mu (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u} + \left( \mu_v + \frac{\mu}{3} \right) \vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u}) \quad (2.32)$$

where

$$\vec{u} = \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) \quad (2.33)$$

$$p = p(\vec{r}, t) \quad (2.34)$$

$$\rho = \rho(\vec{r}, t) \quad (2.35)$$

$$\vec{f}_{\text{ext}} = \vec{f}_{\text{ext}}(\vec{r}, t) \quad (2.36)$$

## 2.3 Navier-Stokes equation in components

$$\begin{aligned}
\rho \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial t} \\ \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial t} \\ \frac{\partial u_z}{\partial t} \end{pmatrix} + \rho \begin{pmatrix} \left( u_x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + u_y \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + u_z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) u_x \\ \left( u_x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + u_y \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + u_z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) u_y \\ \left( u_x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + u_y \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + u_z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) u_z \end{pmatrix} = & \begin{pmatrix} f_x^{\text{ext}} \\ f_y^{\text{ext}} \\ f_z^{\text{ext}} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} \end{pmatrix} \\
& + \mu \begin{pmatrix} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) u_x \\ \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) u_y \\ \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) u_z \end{pmatrix} \\
& + \left( \mu_v + \frac{\mu}{3} \right) \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u_z}{\partial z} \right) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u_z}{\partial z} \right) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u_z}{\partial z} \right) \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned} \tag{2.37}$$

**Remark:** There are only a few exact analytical solutions; many approximate analytical solutions (guided by intuition). Computational fluid dynamics can give us "exact" numerical solutions for approximations to the Navier-Stokes equation.

We now have three coupled differential equations for five fields:  $u_x(\vec{r}, t)$ ,  $u_y(\vec{r}, t)$ ,  $u_z(\vec{r}, t)$ ,  $p(\vec{r}, t)$ , and  $\rho(\vec{r}, t)$ . This means we are missing two equations.

### The first missing equation

From thermodynamics we have an equation of state

$$g(p, \rho) = 0. \tag{2.38}$$

For an incompressible flow, the equation of state is simply

$$\rho = \text{constant}. \tag{2.39}$$

For a compressible flow, the equation of state can be found with the law of ideal gases:

$$pV = NkT, \tag{2.40}$$

from which we get

$$\rho = \frac{N}{V} = \frac{1}{kT} p \tag{2.41}$$

$$\frac{p}{\rho} = kT = \text{constant}. \tag{2.42}$$

This only holds if the temperature is constant.

## The second missing equation

Equation of continuity, local mass conservation.

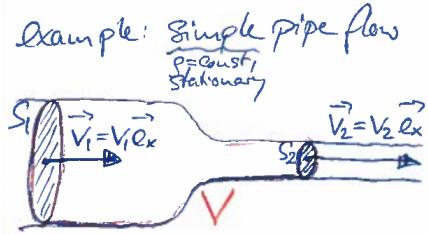


Figure 13: A simple pipe flow to illustrate mass conservation.

**Example:** Simple pipe flow. See Figure 13.

$$M_{\text{in}} = \rho S_1 v_1 \Delta t \quad (2.43)$$

$$M_{\text{out}} = \rho S_2 v_2 \Delta t \quad (2.44)$$

Mass conservation:

$$M_{\text{in}} = M_{\text{out}} \quad (2.45)$$

↓

$$v_1 S_1 = v_2 S_2 \quad (2.46)$$

This is Leonardo's law.

Local mass conservation in a small volume element:

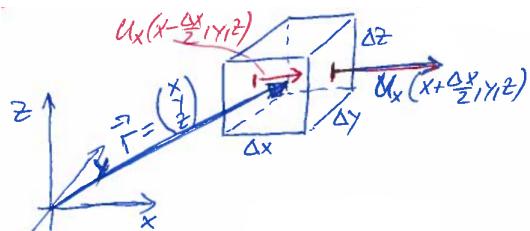


Figure 14: Local mass conservation in a small volume element.

Mass flux through surface of volume  $\Delta V = \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$  in  $x$ -direction:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{dM_x^S}{dt} &= \rho \left( x + \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z, t \right) u_x \left( x + \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z, t \right) \Delta y \Delta z \\
&\quad - \rho \left( x - \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z \right) u_x \left( x - \frac{\Delta x}{2}, y, z \right) \Delta y \Delta z \\
&= \left( \rho(x, y, z) + \frac{\partial \rho(x, y, z)}{\partial x} \frac{\Delta x}{2} \right) \left( u_x(x, y, z) + \frac{\partial u_x(x, y, z)}{\partial x} \frac{\Delta x}{2} \right) \Delta y \Delta z \\
&\quad - \left[ \rho(x, y, z) + \frac{\partial \rho(x, y, z)}{\partial x} \left( -\frac{\Delta x}{2} \right) \right] \left[ u_x(x, y, z) + \frac{\partial u_x(x, y, z)}{\partial x} \left( -\frac{\Delta x}{2} \right) \right] \Delta y \Delta z \\
&= \frac{\partial \rho(x, y, z)}{\partial x} u_x(x, y, z) \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z + \rho(x, y, z) \frac{\partial u_x(x, y, z)}{\partial x} \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z \\
&= \frac{\partial (\rho(x, y, z, t) u_x(x, y, z, t))}{\partial x} \Delta V
\end{aligned} \tag{2.47}$$

Mass flux in  $y$  and  $z$ -direction:

$$\frac{dM_y^S}{dt} = \frac{\partial (\rho(x, y, z) u_y(x, y, z))}{\partial y} \Delta V \tag{2.48}$$

$$\frac{dM_z^S}{dt} = \frac{\partial (\rho(x, y, z) u_z(x, y, z))}{\partial z} \Delta V \tag{2.49}$$

Sum of mass fluxes through volume in all directions:

$$\frac{dM^S}{dt} = \frac{dM_x^S}{dt} + \frac{dM_y^S}{dt} + \frac{dM_z^S}{dt} \tag{2.50}$$

$$= \frac{\partial (\rho u_x)}{\partial x} \Delta V + \frac{\partial (\rho u_y)}{\partial y} \Delta V + \frac{\partial (\rho u_z)}{\partial z} \Delta V \tag{2.51}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \rho u_x \\ \rho u_y \\ \rho u_z \end{pmatrix} \Delta V \tag{2.52}$$

$$= \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\rho(x, y, z) \vec{u}(x, y, z)) \Delta V \tag{2.53}$$

Increase of mass within fixed volume  $\Delta V$ :

$$\frac{\partial M^V}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial (\rho(\vec{r}, t) \Delta V)}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \rho(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} \Delta V \tag{2.54}$$

Local mass conservation

$$\frac{dM^V}{dt} = - \frac{dM^S}{dt} \tag{2.55}$$

If mass within the volume increases, then less has to flow out of the surface than to flow in

$$\frac{\partial \rho(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\rho(\vec{r}, t) \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t)) = 0 \tag{2.56}$$

This is the equation of continuity.

## 2.4 Summary

Navier-Stokes equation:

$$\rho \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \right) \vec{u} = \vec{f}_{\text{ext}} - \vec{\nabla} p + \mu \left( \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \right) \vec{u} + \left( \mu_v + \frac{\mu}{3} \right) \vec{\nabla} \left( \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} \right) \quad (2.57)$$

$$\vec{u} = \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) = \vec{u}(x, y, z, t) \quad (2.58)$$

$$\rho = \rho(\vec{r}, t) \quad (2.59)$$

$$p = p(\vec{r}, t) \quad (2.60)$$

Equation of continuity:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\rho \vec{u}) = 0 \quad (2.61)$$

Equation of state:

$$g(p, \rho; T) = 0 \quad (2.62)$$

Heat equation (if the temperature also becomes a field  $T(\vec{r}, t)$ ):

$$\left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \right) T(\vec{r}, t) = \kappa \left( \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \right) T(\vec{r}, t), \quad (2.63)$$

where  $\kappa$  is the thermal diffusion.

### 3 Simplification of the Navier-Stokes equation (21-25)

#### 3.1 Simplification I: incompressible flows

Incompressibility means that the density of a fluid particle (moving along its pathline) remains constant.

Incompressibility is a very good approximation for most liquids, including water. In 1000 m depth the density of seawater is only 0.4% larger than at the surface. For gases incompressibility is also a good approximation as long as  $|\vec{u}_{\text{gas}}| \ll$  speed of sound. Compressibility becomes important when discussing e.g. sound waves.

$$0 = \frac{d\rho(\vec{r}, t)}{dt} = \frac{\partial\rho}{\partial t} + (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \rho \quad (3.1)$$

$$= -\vec{\nabla}(\rho\vec{u}) + (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \rho \quad (3.2)$$

$$= -(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \rho - \rho(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u}) + (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \rho \quad (3.3)$$

$$= -\rho(\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u}) \quad (3.4)$$

$$= -\rho \operatorname{div} \vec{u} \quad (3.5)$$

In the first line we used the material derivative. In the step to the second line we used continuity equation.

For incompressibility the divergence must be zero:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} = 0 \quad (3.6)$$

Navier-Stokes equation for incompressible flows:

$$\rho \left( \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} + (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \right) \vec{u} = f_{\text{ext}} - \vec{\nabla} p + \mu (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u} \quad (3.7)$$

Remark: It looks simple, but these nonlinear differential equations remain a formidable challenge to engineers, physicists and mathematicians.

Equation of state in the simplest form with constant density:

$$p = p(\rho) \Rightarrow \rho = \rho_0 = \text{constant} \quad (3.8)$$

#### 3.2 Simplification II: incompressible, ideal, stationary, irrotational flows

We use the incompressibility result from earlier:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} = 0 \quad (3.9)$$

Ideal means no friction. To eliminate friction forces we set  $\mu = 0$ .

Euler equation:

$$\rho_0 \left( \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} + (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u} \right) = f_{\text{ext}} - \vec{\nabla} p \quad (3.10)$$

stationary:

$$\vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) = \vec{u}(\vec{r}) \quad (3.11)$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} = 0 \quad (3.12)$$

$$\rho_0 (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u} = f_{\text{ext}} - \vec{\nabla} p \quad (3.13)$$

no external forces:  $f_{\text{ext}} = 0$

$$\rho_0 (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u} = -\vec{\nabla} p \quad (3.14)$$

Assuming irrotational flow:  $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{u} = 0$ .

$$\vec{\nabla} \underbrace{\left( \frac{\rho_0}{2} \vec{u}^2 + p \right)}_{\text{constant}} = 0 \quad (3.15)$$

Bernoulli's equation

$$\frac{\rho_0}{2} \vec{u}^2 + p = \text{constant} \quad (3.16)$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} = 0 \quad (3.17)$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{u} = 0 \quad (3.18)$$

Given all the assumptions, this set of equations is equivalent to the Navier-Stokes equation.

I skipped page 23a and 23b. Should these be included here?

### 3.3 Derivation of Bernoulli's equation

The equation

$$\vec{\nabla} \left( \frac{\rho_0}{2} \vec{v}^2 + p \right) = \rho_0 \vec{v} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{v}) \quad (3.19)$$

is (scalar) multiplied with  $d\vec{s} \parallel \vec{v}$ , where  $d\vec{s}$  describes an increment of a specific streamline (here pathline since  $\vec{v}(\vec{r}, t) = \vec{v}(\vec{r})$ ).

$$d\vec{s} \cdot [\vec{v} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{v})] = 0 \quad (3.20)$$

Since  $d\vec{s} \parallel \vec{v}$  it must be that  $d\vec{s} \perp \vec{v} \times (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{v})$ .

Subsequent path-integration along a streamline yields

$$0 \stackrel{!}{=} \dots \quad (3.21)$$

### 3.4 Example: Why does an airplane fly?

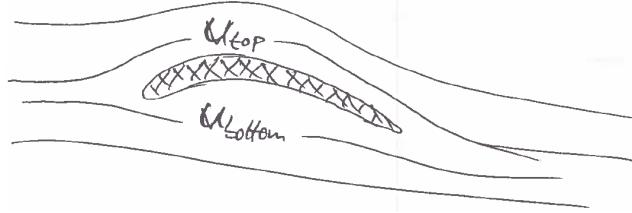


Figure 15:

The wind speed difference between the top and bottom of the wing creates a pressure difference:

$$u_{top} > u_{bottom} \quad (3.22)$$

↓

$$p_{top} < p_{bottom}. \quad (3.23)$$

This results in a lifting force.

## 4 Ideal flow: planar 2-dimensional potential flow around cylinder (26-36)

For further details see section 4.3, 4.9 and 7.1-3 in the KCD book

I skipped the summary of NS equation on page 26 of hand written notes. Maybe there should be an introductory paragraph here with references to equations from previous sections.

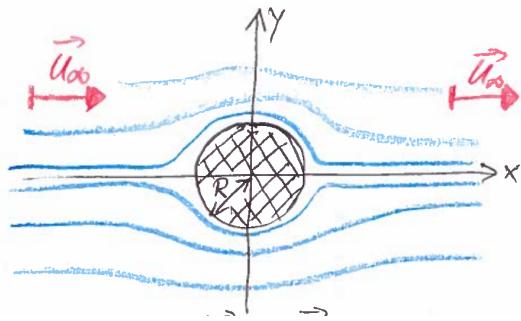


Figure 16:

Questions to Figure 16: 1)  $\vec{u} = \vec{u}(x, y, z)$ ? 2) pathlines (streamlines)?

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{u} = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{u}(\vec{r}) = \vec{\nabla} \phi(\vec{r}) \quad (4.1)$$

where  $\phi(\vec{r})$  is a velocity potential.

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{u} = 0 \quad (4.2)$$

$\Downarrow$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \phi(\vec{r}) = \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \phi(x, y) \quad (4.3)$$

$$= \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) \phi(x, y) = 0 \quad (4.4)$$

This second order differential equation is the Laplace equation.

Question: How does the cylinder (obstacle) enter in solving the Laplace equation?

Two boundary conditions.

1:

$$\vec{u}(|\vec{r}| \rightarrow \infty) = \vec{u}_\infty = u_\infty \vec{e}_x \quad (4.5)$$

$\Downarrow$

$$\phi(|\vec{r}| \rightarrow \infty) = u_\infty x + \text{constant} \quad (4.6)$$

2:

$$0 = u_{\text{surface}} \cdot \vec{n} = \vec{\nabla} \phi \Big|_{\text{surface}} \cdot \vec{n} \quad (4.7)$$

The fluid particle does not flow into the surface; only tangential component.

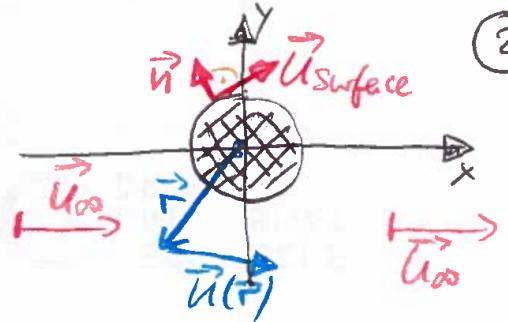


Figure 17:

For the flow around the cylinder the solution of the Laplace equation with the two boundary conditions "falls from the sky" (for the moment):

$$\phi(x, y) = u_{\infty} \times \left( 1 + \frac{R^2}{x^2 + y^2} \right) \quad (4.8)$$

I skipped the last part of page 28 here

Velocity field:

$$\vec{u} = \begin{pmatrix} u_x \\ u_y \end{pmatrix} = \vec{\nabla} \phi(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} \quad (4.9)$$

$$\begin{aligned} u_x &= u_{\infty} \left( 1 + \frac{R^2(y^2 - x^2)}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} \right) \\ u_y &= -u_{\infty} \frac{2xyR^2}{(x^2 + y^2)^2} \end{aligned} \quad (4.10)$$

examples:

$$\vec{u} \Big|_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} = u_{\infty} \vec{e}_x = \vec{u} \Big|_{y \rightarrow \pm\infty} \quad (4.11)$$

$$\vec{u} \Big|_{\vec{r}=\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ R \end{pmatrix}} = 2u_{\infty} \vec{e}_x \quad (4.12)$$

$$\vec{u} \Big|_{\vec{r}=\begin{pmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}} = 0 = \vec{u} \Big|_{\vec{r}=\begin{pmatrix} -R \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}} \quad (4.13)$$

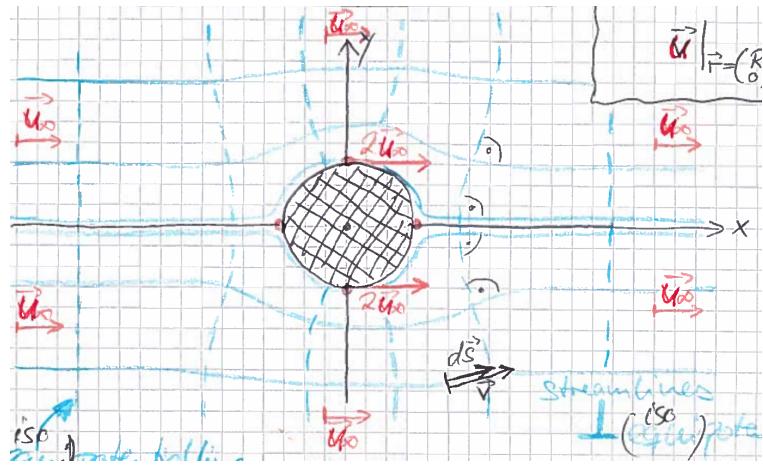


Figure 18:

#### 4.1 Pathline around a cylinder

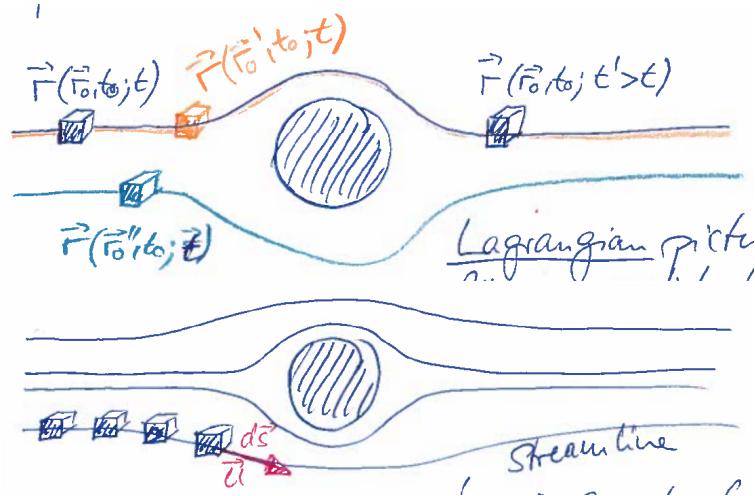


Figure 19:

Top part of Figure 19 shows the Lagrangian picture: follows particle through all times. the bottom part shows the Eulerian picture, which is a snapshot of all fluid particles at one particular time.

Connection between Lagrangian and Eulerian picture:

$$\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} = \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) \quad (4.14)$$

For stationary flows

$$\vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) = \vec{u}(\vec{r}) \Rightarrow \text{pathline} = \text{streamline} \quad (4.15)$$

Given the snapshots  $\vec{u}(\vec{r}, t)$ , we can calculate the pathlines.

Given the pathlines, we can construct the snapshots.

This sounds like the "chicken and egg" problem.

Question: How to calculate the streamlines?

First approach: Definition of streamline:

$$d\vec{s} \parallel \vec{u}, \quad (4.16)$$

where  $ds$  is a line element of a streamline.

$$0 = d\vec{s} \times \vec{u} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 & \vec{e}_z \\ dx & dy & 0 \\ u_x & u_y & 0 \end{vmatrix} = (u_y dx - u_x dy) \vec{e}_z \quad (4.17)$$

↓

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{u_y}{u_x} = -\frac{2xyR^2}{(x^2 + y^2)^2 + R^2(y^2 - x^2)} \quad (4.18)$$

Second approach: introduce the streamfunction  $\psi(x, y)$ .

Incompressibility gives us:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} = \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial y} = 0 \quad (4.19)$$

which leads to

$$u_x = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}, \quad u_y = -\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \quad (4.20)$$

$$d\vec{s} \times \vec{u} = (u_y dx - u_x dy) \vec{e}_x \quad (4.21)$$

$$= \left( -\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} dx - \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} dy \right) \vec{e}_z \quad (4.22)$$

$$= -d\psi \vec{e}_z \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \quad (4.23)$$

The streamfunction is constant along a streamline. This represents an *isopotential line* of the streamfunction and describes a streamline.

From the defining functions of the streamfunction in (4.20) and the  $u_x, u_y$  solution for the ideal flow around a cylinder in (4.10), we can determine  $\psi$  by partial integration

$$\psi(x, y) = v_\infty y \left( 1 - \frac{R''2}{x^2 + y^2} \right) \quad (4.24)$$

$$= v_\infty \sin \psi \left( r - \frac{R^2}{r} \right) \quad (4.25)$$

**Remark:** relationship between velocity potential and streamfunction  $\phi = \text{constant}$ ,  $\psi = \text{constant}$  represent and orthogonal set of curves, because

$$(\vec{\nabla} \phi) \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \psi) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_x \\ u_y \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -u_y \\ u_x \end{pmatrix} = 0 \quad (4.26)$$

I left out page 32a-32d here.

Two dimensional potential flow around an infinitely long cylinder

Because of cylinder symmetry we can transform from to cylindrical coordinates

$$x = r \cos \phi \quad (4.27)$$

$$y = r \sin \phi \quad (4.28)$$

$$\Phi(x, y) \rightarrow \Phi(r, \phi) \quad (4.29)$$

$$\Delta \Phi(x, y) = \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) \Phi(x, y) \quad (4.30)$$

$$= \left[ \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \right] \Phi(r, \phi) \quad (4.31)$$

$$= 0 \quad (4.32)$$

↓

$$r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial r} \right) = - \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial \phi^2} \quad (4.33)$$

I left out page 33a-33b here.

Ansatz: factorization

$$\Phi(r, \phi) = f(r)g(\phi) \quad (4.34)$$

$$\frac{1}{f \cdot g} r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r \frac{\partial(f(r)g(\phi))}{\partial r} \right) = - \frac{1}{f \cdot g} \frac{\partial^2(f(r)g(\phi))}{\partial \phi^2} \quad (4.35)$$

↓

$$\frac{1}{f(r)} r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r \frac{\partial f(r)}{\partial r} \right) = - \frac{1}{g(\phi)} \frac{\partial^2 g(\phi)}{\partial \phi^2} \stackrel{!}{=} m^2 \quad (4.36)$$

Left part depends only on  $r$ , middle part depends only on  $\phi$ , and right part is a constant, which does neither depend on  $r$  nor  $\phi$ .

$$\frac{\partial^2 g(\phi)}{\partial \phi^2} = -m^2 g(\phi) \quad (4.37)$$

↓

$$g(\phi) = e^{im\phi} = \cos m\phi + i \sin m\phi \quad (4.38)$$

requirement:

$$g(\phi) = g(\phi + 2\pi) \quad (4.39)$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$e^{im\phi} = e^{im(\phi+2m)} \quad (4.40)$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$e^{2\pi im} = 1 \quad (4.41)$$

$$r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} f(r) \right) = m^2 f(r) \quad (4.42)$$

polynomial ansatz:

$$f(r) = r^\alpha \quad (4.43)$$

$$r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r \alpha r^{\alpha-1} \right) = \alpha^2 r^\alpha \stackrel{!}{=} m^2 r^\alpha \quad (4.44)$$

$$leads to \alpha = \pm m \quad (4.45)$$

$$\Phi(r, \phi) = f(r)g(\phi) = r^{\pm m} e^{im\phi} \quad (4.46)$$

Since the Laplace equation is linear in  $\Phi$ , the most general solution for  $\Phi$  is a linear superposition of all possible solutions:

$$\Phi(r\phi) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} (a_m r^m + b_m r^{-m}) e^{im\phi} \quad (4.47)$$

$$= \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \left[ (a_m r^m + b_m r^{-m}) e^{im\phi} + (c_m r^m + d_m r^{-m}) e^{-im\phi} \right] \quad (4.48)$$

Remark:

$$\Phi_{m=0} = a_0 + b_0 = \text{constant} \quad (4.49)$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$\vec{u}_{m=0} = \vec{\nabla} \Phi_{m=0} = 0 \quad (4.50)$$

Determination of amplitudes  $a_m$ ,  $b_m$ ,  $c_m$ , and  $d_m$  via boundary conditions:

$$\Phi(r \rightarrow \infty, \phi) = u_\infty x = u_\infty r \cos \phi \quad (4.51)$$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{e}_r|_{r=R} = \vec{\nabla} \Phi \cdot \vec{e}_r|_{r=R} = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial r} \Big|_{r=R} = 0 \quad (4.52)$$

I left out the derivations on page 36

$$\Phi(r, \phi) = u_\infty r \cos \phi \left(1 + \frac{R^2}{r^2}\right) = u_\infty x \left(1 + \frac{R^2}{x^2 + y^2}\right) = \Phi(x, y) \quad (4.53)$$

## 5 Ideal potential flows (continued) (37-44)

**Opening remark:** 2-dimensional potential flow solutions will often look like

$$\Phi(x, y) = u_\infty x + f(x, y). \quad (5.1)$$

Any function  $f(x, y)$ , which fulfills

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f(|x|, |y| \rightarrow \infty) = 0, \quad (5.2)$$

describes a flow around some obstacle.

**Play 1:**

$$\Phi(x, y) = \frac{m}{2\pi} \ln \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \quad (5.3)$$

represents the radial flow resulting from a source with strength  $m$ . See Figure 20.

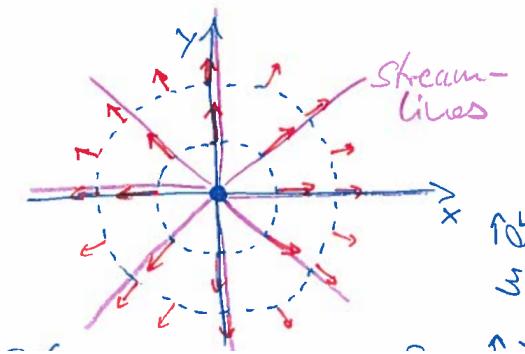


Figure 20:

**Play 2:** method of images. Source flow in front of a wall. See Figure 21.

Boundary condition: no flow through the wall; only tangential component.

$$\phi(x, y) = \frac{m}{2\pi} \ln \sqrt{(x + a)^2 + y^2} + \frac{m}{2\pi} \ln \sqrt{(x - a)^2 + y^2} \quad (5.4)$$

**Play 3:** flow past a 2-dimensional half-body. See Figure 22.

$$\Phi = u_\infty x + \frac{m}{2\pi} \ln \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \quad (5.5)$$

$\Downarrow$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial y^2} = 0 \quad (5.6)$$

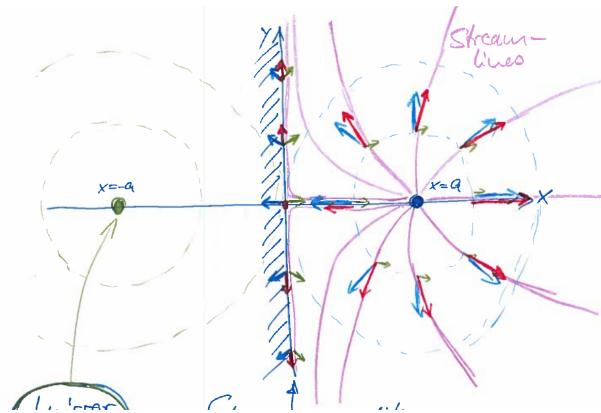


Figure 21:

$$u_x(x, y) = u_\infty + \frac{m}{2\pi} \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} \quad (5.7)$$

$$u_y(x, y) = u_\infty + \frac{m}{2\pi} \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2} \quad (5.8)$$

Engineering flow interpretations:

1. An example of the beginning of the half-body is the leading edge of an airfoil
2. pedestrian on a bridge looking down: front part of a bridge pier
3. flow over a cliff

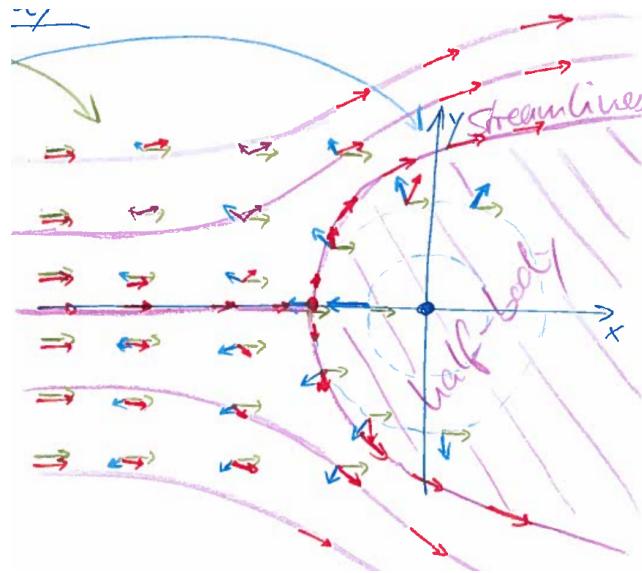


Figure 22:

**Play 4:** numerical solutions (KCD section 6: Computational Fluid Dynamics)

**Play 5:** "beauty of mathematics". Conformal mappings. Complex potential

$$w(z) = \phi(x, y) + i\psi(x, y) \quad (5.9)$$

where  $z = x + iy$ .

Velocity:

$$\frac{dw(z)}{dz} = \frac{dw(z)}{dz} \Big|_{dz=dx} = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} = u_x - iu_y \quad (5.10)$$

$$= \frac{dw(z)}{dz} \Big|_{dz=idy} = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} - i \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} = u_x - iu_y \quad (5.11)$$

Differentiable example 1:

$$w(z) = u_\infty z = u_\infty(x + iy) = u_\infty x + iu_\infty y \quad (5.12)$$

describes the constant flow  $\vec{u} = u_\infty \vec{e}_x$ .

Differentiable example 2:

$$w(z) = \frac{m}{2\pi} \ln z = \frac{m}{2\pi} \ln(x + iy) \quad (5.13)$$

$$= \frac{m}{2\pi} \ln(re^{i\theta}) \quad (5.14)$$

$$= \frac{m}{2\pi} \ln r + \frac{m}{2\pi} \ln e^{i\theta} \quad (5.15)$$

$$= \frac{m}{2\pi} \ln \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + i \frac{m}{2\pi} \theta \quad (5.16)$$

The two terms in the last line is the velocity field and stream function of a radial source flow (see "play 1").

Differentiable example 3:

$$w(z) = \frac{A}{2} z^2 = \frac{A}{2} (x + iy)^2 \quad (5.17)$$

$$= \frac{A}{2} (x^2 - y^2) + i A x y \quad (5.18)$$

Differentiable example 4:

$$w(z) = \phi(x, y) + i\psi(x, y) = u_\infty x \left(1 + \frac{R^2}{x^2 + y^2}\right) + iu_\infty y \left(1 - \frac{R^2}{x^2 + y^2}\right) \quad (5.19)$$

$$= u_\infty(x + iy) + u_\infty R^2 \frac{x - iy}{x^2 + y^2} \quad (5.20)$$

$$= u_\infty(x + iy) + \frac{u_\infty R^2}{x + iy} \quad (5.21)$$

$$= u_\infty \left(z + \frac{R^2}{z}\right) \quad (5.22)$$

flow around cylinder with radius  $R$ :

$$w(z) = u_\infty \left(z + \frac{R^2}{z}\right) \quad (5.23)$$

change of variable:

$$z)z(\tilde{z}) \quad (5.24)$$

Example:

$$\tilde{z} = (z + z_0) + \frac{1}{z + z_0} \quad (5.25)$$



$$w_{\text{new obstacle}}(\tilde{z}) = w_{\text{cylinder}}(z(\tilde{z})) \quad (5.26)$$

Should we include the figure on the left half of page 43 here?

**Remark:** other applications of conformal mappings

**Electrostatics**

$$\Delta\phi = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}\phi = 0 \quad (5.27)$$

**Heat flux**

$$\frac{\partial T(x, y)}{\partial t} = \kappa \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} T(x, y) \Rightarrow \Delta T(x, y) = 0 \quad (5.28)$$

## 6 Forces on a 2-dimensional body (45-63)

Ideal potential flows:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v} = 0 = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{v} \Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \phi = \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) \phi = 0 \quad (6.1)$$

Where is the Euler equation? Do we need it?

Euler equation:

$$\rho \left( \frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} + (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{v} \right) = \rho \vec{f} - \vec{\nabla} p + \mu (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{v} \quad (6.2)$$

Reduce to Bernoulli equation:

$$\vec{\nabla} \left( \frac{\rho}{2} \vec{v}^2 + p \right) = 0 \quad (6.3)$$

With the Bernoulli equation (leftover from the Euler equation) we can calculate the force on the "obstacle" (Figure 23) from the surrounding flow:

$$\vec{F} = \int_{S(v)} (-p(\vec{r})) d\vec{A} = - \int_{S(v)} \left( p_0 - \frac{\rho}{2} \vec{v}^2(\vec{r}) \right) d\vec{A} \quad (6.4)$$

$$= \frac{\rho}{2} \int_{S(v)} \vec{v}^2(\vec{r}) d\vec{A} \quad (6.5)$$

$$= L \vec{e}_y + \underbrace{D \vec{e}_x}_{=0} \quad (6.6)$$

where  $\vec{L}$  is the lift force and  $\vec{D}$  is the drag force. The last term equals zero because there is no friction.

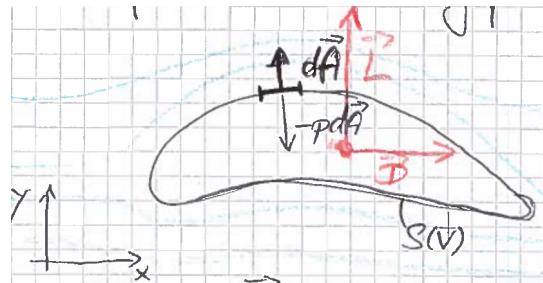


Figure 23:

I skipped page 45a and the solution of an old exam problem: pages 46, 46a-46d.

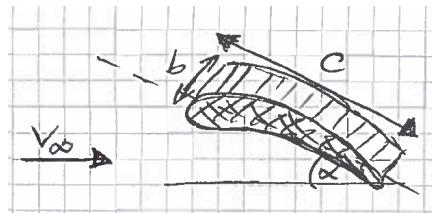


Figure 24:

Lift coefficient

$$C_L = \frac{L}{\frac{1}{2} \rho v_\infty^2 b c} \quad (6.7)$$

Drag coefficient:

$$C_D = \frac{D}{\frac{1}{2} \rho v_\infty^2 b c} \quad (6.8)$$

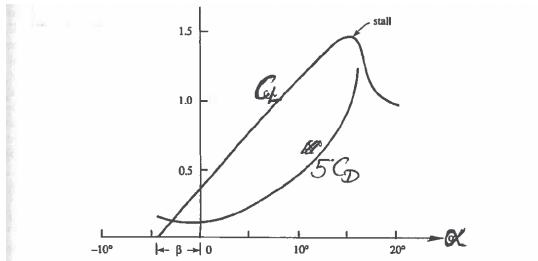


FIGURE 14.25 Generic lift and drag coefficients vs. angle of attack. There is lift at  $\alpha = 0$  so the foil shape has nonzero camber. The drag increase is almost quadratic with increasing angle of attack in accordance with (14.26).

Figure 25:

## 6.1 Turbine blade

Explain how the lift force pulls the rotor blade of a wind turbine forward. See Figure 26.

## 6.2 Sailing against the wind (KCD 14.9)

People have sailed without the aid of an engine for thousands of years and have known how to reach an upwind destination. Actually, it is not possible to sail exactly against the wind, but it is possible to sail at  $z 40^\circ$  to the wind. Figure 14.29 shows how this is made possible by the aerodynamic lift on the sail, which is a piece of stretched and stiffened cloth. The wind speed is  $U$ , and the sailing speed is  $V$ , so that the apparent wind speed relative to the boat is  $U_r$ . If the sail is properly oriented, this gives rise to a lift force perpendicular to  $U_r$  and a drag force parallel to  $U_r$ . The resultant force  $F$  can be resolved into a driving component (thrust) along the motion of the boat and a lateral component. The driving component performs work in moving the boat; most of this work goes into overcoming the frictional drag and in generating the gravity waves that radiate outward from the hull. The lateral

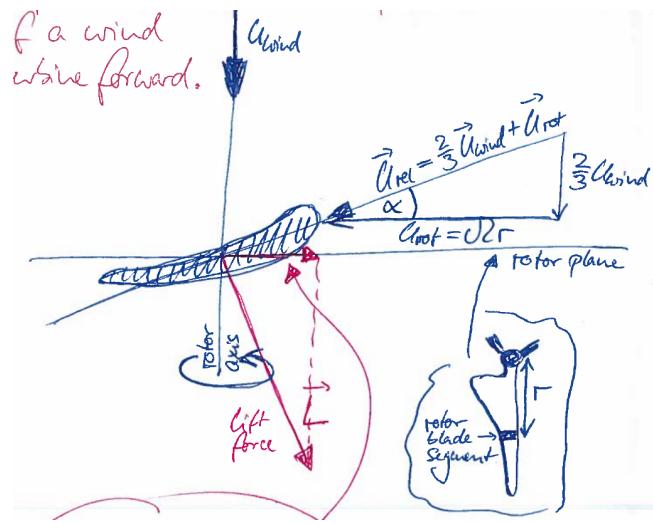


Figure 26:

component does not cause much sideways drift because of the shape of the hull. It is clear that the thrust decreases as the angle  $\theta$  decreases and normally vanishes when  $\theta$  is  $\approx 40^\circ$ . The energy for sailing comes from the wind field, which loses kinetic energy after passing the sail.

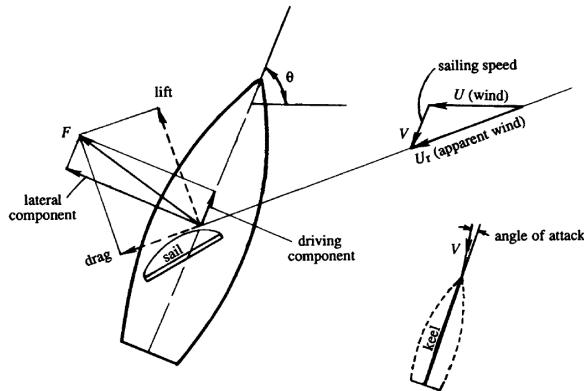


Figure 27: Principle of sailing against the wind. A small component of the sail's lift pushes the boat forward at an angle  $\theta < 90^\circ$  to the wind. Thus by traversing a zig-zag course at angles  $\pm\theta$ , a sailboat can reach an upwind destination. A sailboat's keel may make a contribution to its upwind progress too.

### 6.3 Reynolds number

Fluid around a cylinder can create several real flow patterns. See Figure 28.

**Questions:**

1. why so many different flows?
2. what causes and characterizes them?

Certainly friction, i.e. viscosity, will have something to do with it.

$$0 = \rho_0 \left[ \frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} + (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{v} \right] + \vec{\nabla} p - \mu \Delta \vec{v} \quad (6.9)$$

$$= \rho_0 \left[ \frac{V}{T} \frac{\partial \vec{v}'}{\partial t'} + \frac{V^2}{L} (\vec{v}' \cdot \vec{\nabla}') \vec{v}' \right] + \frac{\rho_0 V^2}{L} \vec{\nabla}' p' - \mu \frac{V}{L^2} \Delta' \vec{v}' \quad (6.10)$$

$$= \rho_0 \frac{V^2}{L} \left\{ \frac{\partial \vec{v}'}{\partial t'} + (\vec{v}' \cdot \vec{\nabla}') \vec{v}' + \vec{\nabla}' p' - \frac{\mu}{\rho_0 L V} \Delta' \vec{v}' \right\} \quad (6.11)$$

where  $L$  is the characteristic length,  $V$  is the characteristic velocity,  $T = L/V$  is the characteristic time, and  $P = \rho_0 V^2$  the characteristic pressure.

Reynolds number:

$$Re = \frac{\rho_0 L V}{\mu} \quad (6.12)$$

**Remark:** law of similarity

If two flows have the same geometry (object) and the same Reynolds number, but a different absolute scale it means that the two flows are similar (identical, except for a scale transformation). Applications of this is wind tunnel experiments of air wings, wind turbine blades, cars, etc.

The Reynolds number

$$Re = \frac{\rho_0 L V}{\mu} = \frac{\rho_0 V^2 / L}{\mu V / L}, \quad (6.13)$$

is the inertia force density divided by the friction force density.

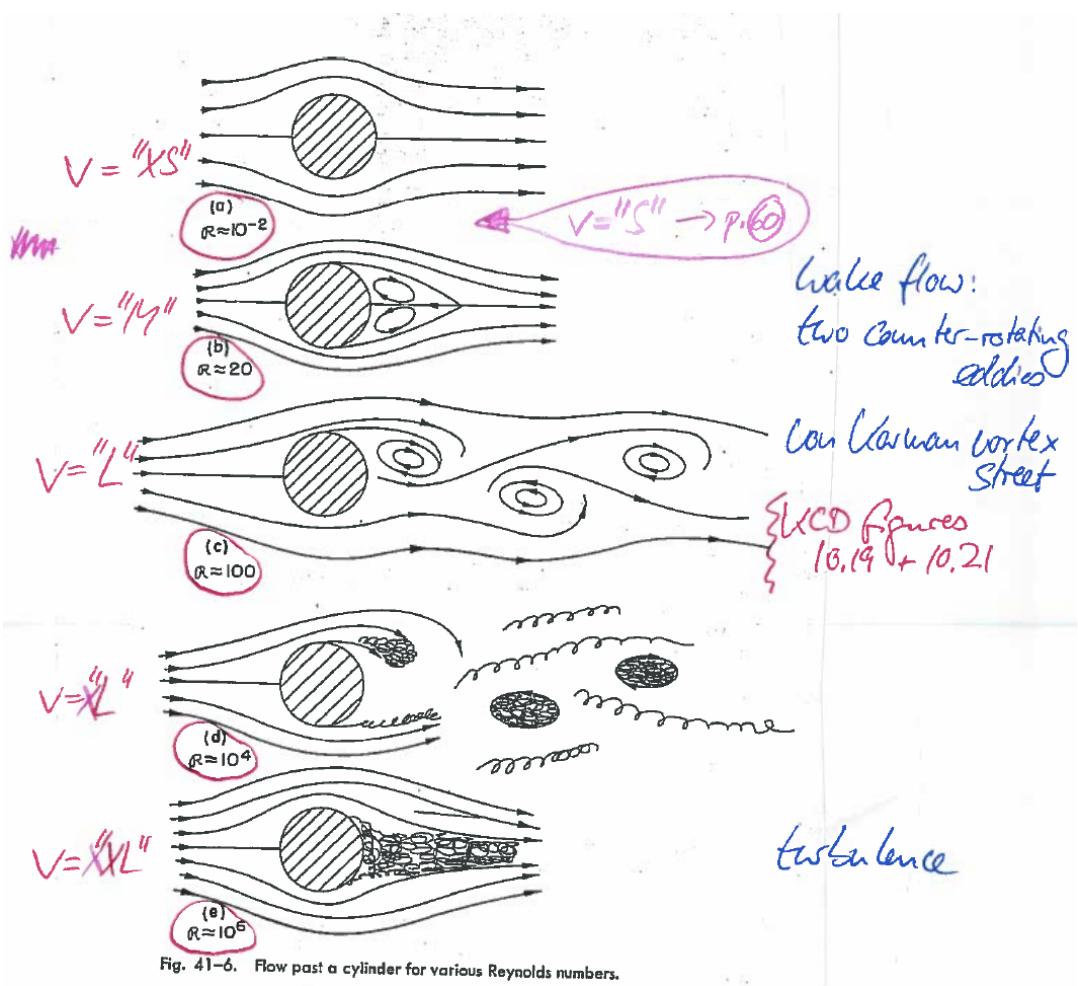


Fig. 41-6. Flow past a cylinder for various Reynolds numbers.

Figure 28:

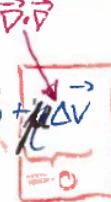
$Re \ll 1$

inertia  $\ll$  friction force density  
 $\Rightarrow$  due to large friction (coupling), neighbouring fluid particles move in an ordered way.  
 $\Rightarrow$  first (top) flow pattern on p. 57

NS eq.:

$$\text{So} \left[ \frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} + (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{v} \right] = -\vec{\nabla} P + \mu \Delta \vec{v}$$

$\Delta = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}$



$\Rightarrow$  creeping flows  
 (example: marble falling down in honey)

$\Rightarrow$  the resulting flow pattern looks like potential flow:  
 same streamlines,  
 but different velocities  
 close to the cylinder surface  
 due to ~~no~~ no-slip boundary condition

$$\vec{v}|_{\text{boundary}} = 0 \quad \text{for viscous flows}$$

! no-slip condition !

$Re \gg 1$

inertia  $\gg$  friction force density  
 $\Rightarrow$  due to weak friction (coupling), neighbouring fluid particles move in a disordered way.  
 $\Rightarrow$  last (bottom) flow pattern on p. 57

NS eq.:

$$\text{So} \left[ \frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} + (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{v} \right] = -\vec{\nabla} P + \mu \Delta \vec{v}$$

Euler eq. 222  
 $\Rightarrow$  but then this looks like a potential flow, and  $Re \gg 1$  should describe the first (top) flow pattern of p. 57 222

mathematical problem:

by neglecting the friction forces, we turn the 2<sup>nd</sup> order NS eq. into a first order differential equation.

$\Rightarrow$  boundary condition

$$\vec{v}|_{\text{boundary}} = 0 \quad \text{for viscous flows}$$

can no longer be fulfilled

stability analysis:

$$\vec{v}(\vec{r}, t) = \vec{V}(\vec{r}) + \delta \vec{v}(\vec{r}, t)$$

ideal flow perturbation

$$\Rightarrow \delta \vec{v}(\vec{r}, t) \sim e^{\lambda t} \delta \vec{v}(\vec{r}, 0), \lambda > 0$$

unstable  
flow

Figure 29: This should be presented in text in a better way.

## ~~Handwritten~~ Schematic real flow patterns around a cylinder:

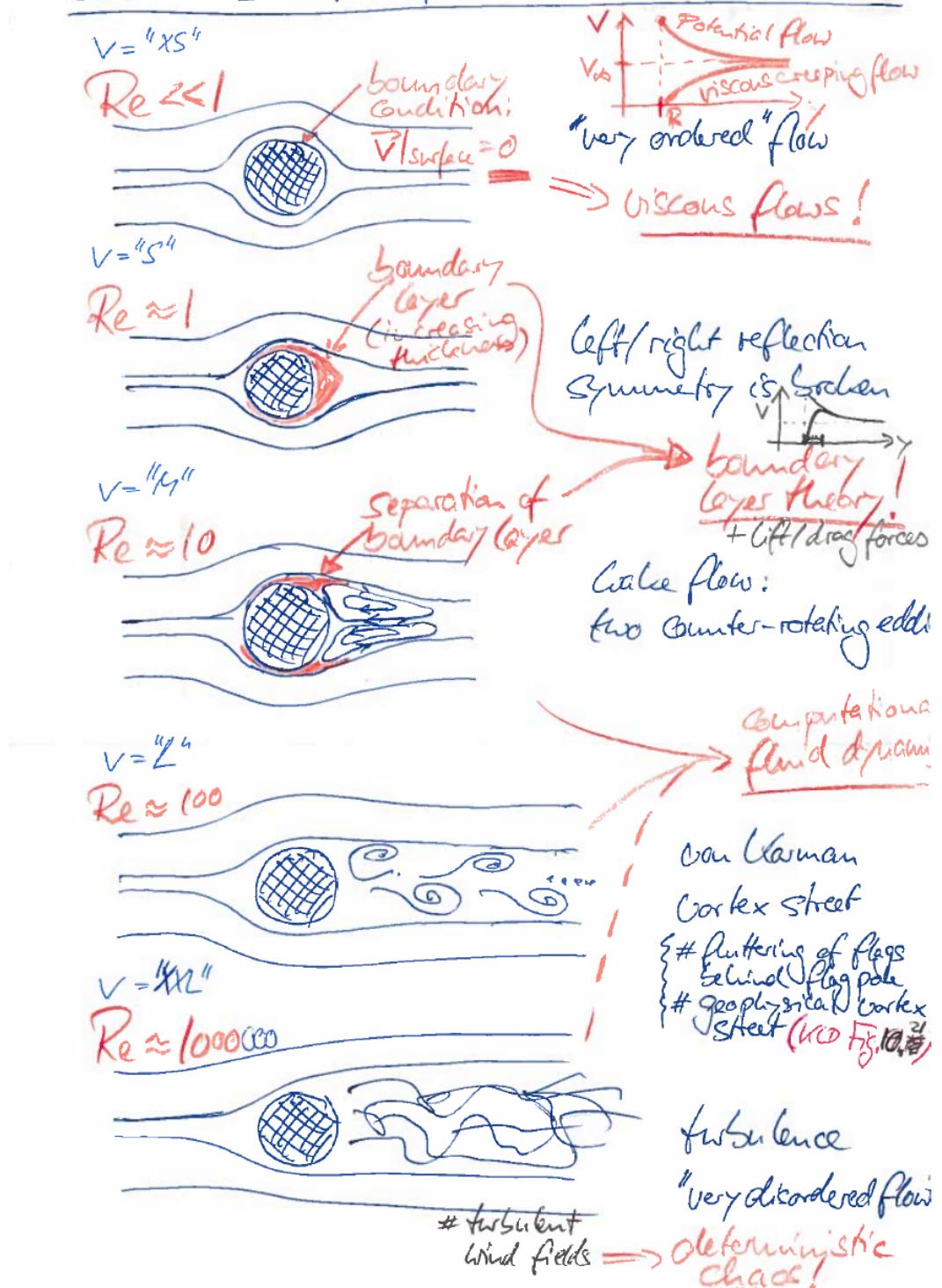


Figure 30:

## 6.4 Viscous pipe flow

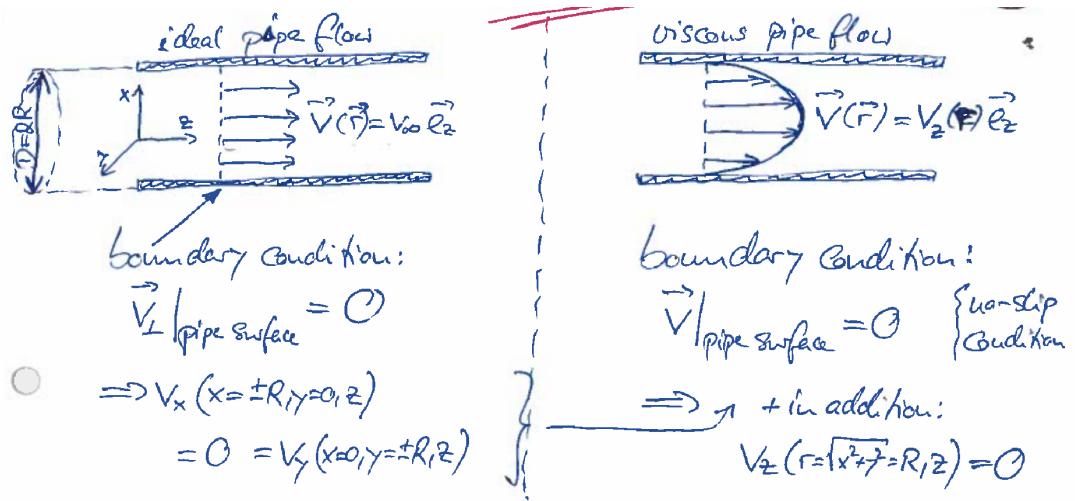


Figure 31:

Task: calculate velocity profile  $v_z = v_z(r)$  for the viscous pipe flow.

Navier-Stokes equation

$$\rho_0 \underbrace{\frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t}}_{=0} + \rho_0 \underbrace{\left( \vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \right) \vec{v}}_{=0} = \underbrace{f_{\text{ext}}}_{=0} - \vec{\nabla} p + \mu \left( \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \right) \vec{v} \quad (6.14)$$

$$0 = -\vec{\nabla} p + \mu \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) v_z \vec{e}_z \quad (6.15)$$

$$\downarrow \\ \left( \vec{\nabla} p \right)_x = \left( \vec{\nabla} p \right)_y = 0 \quad (6.16)$$

$$\downarrow \\ p = p(z) \quad (6.17)$$

$$\mu \Delta v_z(r) = \frac{\mu}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r \frac{\partial v_z(r)}{\partial r} \right) \quad (6.18)$$

$$= \frac{\partial p(z)}{\partial z} \stackrel{!}{=} \text{constant} \quad (6.19)$$

$$\frac{\partial p(z)}{\partial t} = c \quad (6.20)$$

↓

$$p(z) = cz + d \quad (6.21)$$

$$= \frac{p(z=L) - p(z=0)}{L} z + p(z=0) \quad (6.22)$$

$$= -\frac{\Delta p}{L} z + p(z=0) \quad (6.23)$$

$$\frac{\mu}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r \frac{\partial v_z(r)}{\partial r} \right) = c = -\frac{\Delta p}{L} \quad (6.24)$$

↓

$$r \frac{\partial v_z(r)}{\partial r} = -\frac{\Delta p}{\mu L} \frac{r^2}{2} + D_1 \quad (6.25)$$

↓

$$v_z(r) = -\frac{\Delta p}{4\mu L} r^2 + D_1 \ln r + D_2 \quad (6.26)$$

↓

$$v_z(r) = \frac{\Delta p}{4\mu L} (R^2 - r^2) \quad (6.27)$$

Fluid mass per time passing through pipe cross-section:

$$\frac{dM}{dt} = \int_0^R \rho_0 v_z(r) 2\pi r dr = \frac{\pi \rho_0 R^4 \Delta p}{8\mu L} \quad (6.28)$$

This is the Hagen-Poiseuille law.

**Remark:** this law allows to determine the viscosity:

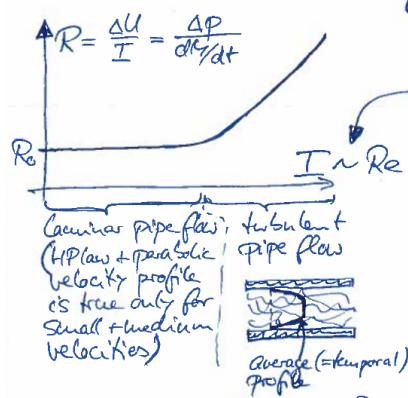
$$\left\{ \underbrace{\rho_0, R, L}_{\text{known}} , \quad \underbrace{\Delta p, \frac{dM}{dt}}_{\text{measured}} \right\} \Rightarrow \mu \quad (6.29)$$

**Remark:** "Ohm's Law"

$$\Delta p = \Delta u, \quad \frac{dM}{dt} = I \quad (6.30)$$

↓

$$I = \frac{\pi \rho_0 R^4}{8 L \mu} \quad (6.31)$$



$$R = R_0 \cdot f(Re) \quad (6.32)$$

with

$$f(Re \rightarrow 0) = 1 \quad (6.33)$$

we conclude that turbulence increases pipe resistance. This is important for the operation of oil and gas pipelines.

## 6.5 Boundary layers

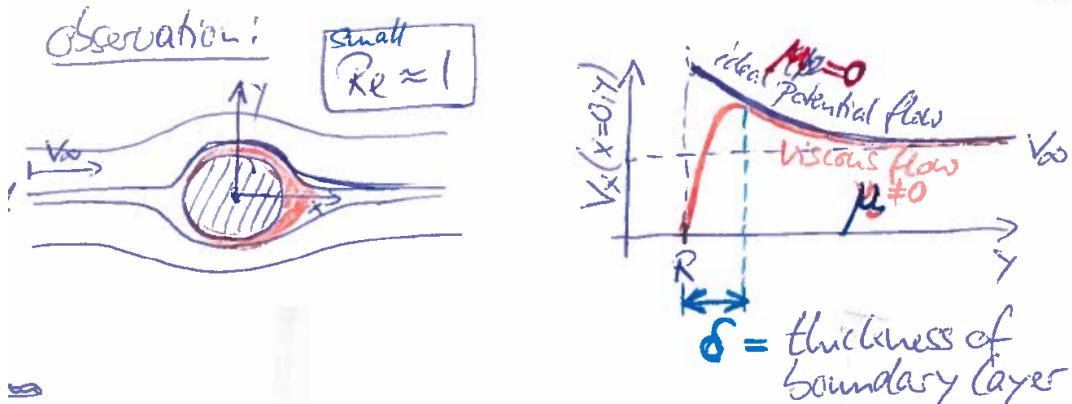


Figure 32:

Idea of boundary layer theory:

1. within the boundary layer the velocity increases from zero to the ideal flow velocity
2. inside the boundary layer we use the Navier-Stokes equation (with friction)
3. outside the boundary layer we use the Euler equation without friction i.e. ideal potential flow
4. at the boundary surface we match the inside solution with the outside solution

Derivation of the (laminar) boundary layer equations. Approximation to the Navier-Stokes equation inside the boundary layer. See Figure 33.

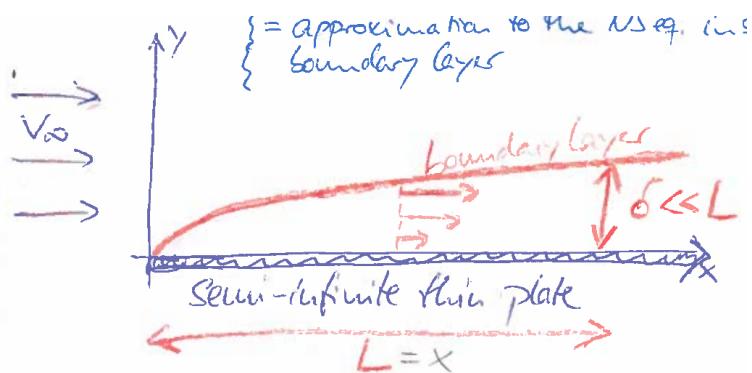


Figure 33:

In the following we determine  $\delta = \delta(x)$  (Figure 33) without solving the Navier-Stokes equation.

Incompressible flow:

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v} = \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} = 0 \quad (6.34)$$

$$= \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{v_\infty}{L}\right) + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{v_y}{\delta}\right) \quad (6.35)$$

↓

$$\mathcal{O}(v_y) = \delta \frac{v_\infty}{L} = \frac{\delta}{L} v_\infty \quad (6.36)$$

Navier-Stokes equation (x-component):

$$v_x \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial^2 v_x}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial^2 v_x}{\partial y^2} \quad (6.37)$$

$$\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{v_\infty^2}{L}\right) \stackrel{!}{=} \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \frac{v_\infty}{\delta^2}\right) \quad (6.38)$$

$$\left(\frac{\delta}{L}\right)^2 \sim \frac{\mu}{\rho_0 L v_\infty} = \frac{1}{Re} \quad (6.39)$$

The larger the Reynolds number, the thinner the boundary layer. This holds for  $Re \leq 1 \times 10^5 - 1 \times 10^6$ , above that the boundary layer becomes turbulent, and is no longer laminar.

$$\delta(x) \sim \sqrt{\frac{\mu x}{\rho_0 v_\infty}} \quad (6.40)$$

Navier-Stokes equation (y-component):

$$v_x \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial^2 v_y}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial^2 v_y}{\partial y^2} \quad (6.41)$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial y} = 0 \Rightarrow p = p(x) \quad (6.42)$$

**Prandtl equations:** laminar boundary layer equations

$$v_x \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial p(x)}{\partial x} + \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial^2 v_x}{\partial y^2} \quad (6.43)$$

$$\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} = 0 \quad (6.44)$$

**Example:** Solution of Prandtl equations for laminar boundary flow around semi-infinite plate

$$p = p(x) \Rightarrow p(x)|_{\text{inside}} = p(x)|_{\text{outside}} \quad (6.45)$$

Outside boundary layer:

$$v_x|_{\text{outside}} = v_x = v_\infty = \text{constant} \quad (6.46)$$

$$v_y|_{\text{outside}} = 0 \quad (6.47)$$

Bernoulli equation:

$$p(x) + \frac{\rho_0}{2} v_x^2 = \text{constant} \quad (6.48)$$

$$\downarrow \\ p(x) = \text{constant} \quad (6.49)$$

$$\downarrow \\ \frac{\partial p(x)}{\partial x} = 0 \quad (6.50)$$

Similarity ansatz:

$$v_x(x, y) = v_\infty g\left(\frac{y}{\delta(x)}\right) \quad (6.51)$$

Except for a rescaling with  $\delta(x)$  the velocity  $v_x(x, y)$  looks like the same for all  $x$ .

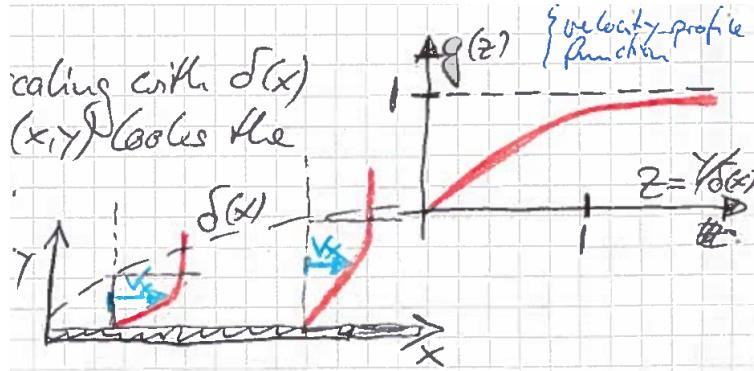


Figure 34:

**Question:** does the similarity ansatz work?

$$\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} = 0 \quad (6.52)$$

$\Downarrow$

$$v_x = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}, \quad v_y = -\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \quad (6.53)$$

$$\psi(x, y) = v_\infty \delta(x) f\left(\frac{y}{\delta(x)}\right) \quad (6.54)$$

$$v_x = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} = v_\infty \delta(x) \frac{df(z)}{dz} \frac{dz}{dy} \quad (6.55)$$

$$= v_\infty \delta(x) \frac{df(z)}{dz} \frac{1}{\delta(x)} \quad (6.56)$$

$$= v_\infty \frac{df(z)}{dz} \quad (6.57)$$

$$\stackrel{!}{=} v_\infty g(z) \quad (6.58)$$

---


$$f' = \frac{df(z)}{dz} g(z) \quad (6.59)$$

$$v_y = -\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \quad (6.60)$$

$$= -v_\infty \frac{d\delta(x)}{dx} f(z) - v_\infty \delta(x) \frac{df(z)}{dz} \frac{dz}{dx} \quad (6.61)$$

$$= v_\infty \left[ -f + \frac{yf'}{\delta} \right] \frac{d\delta(x)}{dx} \quad (6.62)$$

$$\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} = (v_\infty f'') \left( \frac{-y}{\delta^2} \right) \frac{d\delta(x)}{dx} = -\frac{v_\infty y f''}{\delta^2} \frac{d\delta(x)}{dx} \quad (6.63)$$

$$\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} = (v_\infty f'') \frac{1}{\delta} = \frac{v_\infty f''}{\delta} \quad (6.64)$$

$$\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} = \frac{v_\infty f''}{\delta^2} \quad (6.65)$$

$$v_x \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} - \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial^2 v_x}{\partial y^2} = -(v_\infty f') \left( \frac{v_\infty y f''}{\delta^2} \frac{d\delta(x)}{dx} \right) \\ + \left( v_\infty \left[ -f + \frac{yf'}{\delta} \right] \frac{d\delta(x)}{dx} \right) \left( \frac{v_\infty f''}{\delta} \right) \quad (6.66)$$

$$- \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \left( \frac{v_\infty f''}{\delta^2} \right) \\ = -\frac{v_\infty^2}{\delta} \frac{d\delta}{dx} f f'' - \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \frac{v_\infty}{\delta^2} f''' \quad (6.67)$$

$$= 0 \quad (6.68)$$

$$\frac{\rho_0 v_\infty}{\mu} \delta(x) \frac{d\delta(x)}{dx} = -\frac{f'''(z)}{f(z)f''(z)} \stackrel{!}{=} c_1^2 \quad (6.69)$$

$$\delta \frac{d\delta}{dx} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d\delta^2}{dx} = c_1^2 \frac{\mu}{\rho_0 v_\infty} \quad (6.70)$$

$$\delta^2 = 2c_1^2 \frac{\mu}{\rho_0 v_\infty} x + c_2 \quad (6.71)$$

$c_2 = 0$  since  $\delta(x=0) = 0$ .

$$\delta(x) = c_1 \sqrt{\frac{2\mu}{\rho_0 v_\infty} x} \quad (6.72)$$

$$\delta(x) = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\rho_0 v_\infty} x} \quad (6.73)$$

$c_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ . Freedom of choice because of arbitrary definition of  $\delta$ ; for example,  $v_x(y=\delta) = 0.99v_\infty$  or  $v_x(x=\delta) = 0.95v_\infty$ .

This is the same result as the order of magnitude calculation when we calculated the x-component of the Navier-Stokes equation earlier in this section.

$$f'''(z) + \frac{1}{2} f(z) f''(z) = 0 \quad (6.74)$$

$$f(z) \frac{d^2 f(z)}{dz^2} + 2 \frac{d^3 f(z)}{dz^3} = 0 \quad (6.75)$$

This is Blasius' equation. A special case of the more general Falker-Skan equation.

## 6.6 Separation of boundary layers (64-65)

Boundary condition at the wall:

$$v_x(x, y=0) = v_y(x, y=0) = 0 \quad (6.76)$$

Prandtl equation (with pressure)

$$v_x \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial^2 v_x}{\partial y^2} \quad (6.77)$$

If we are very close to the wall, the two terms on the left side equal zero. We then have

$$\frac{\partial p(x, y=0)}{\partial x} = \mu \frac{\partial^2 v_x(x, y=0)}{\partial y^2} \quad (6.78)$$

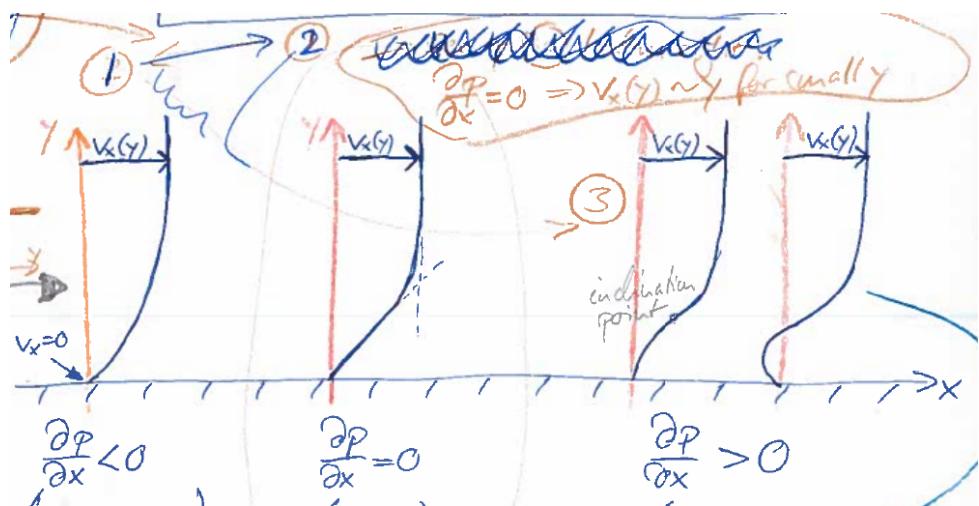


Figure 35:

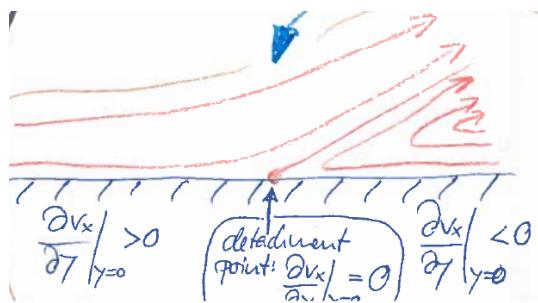


Figure 36:

**Example:** flow around cylinder

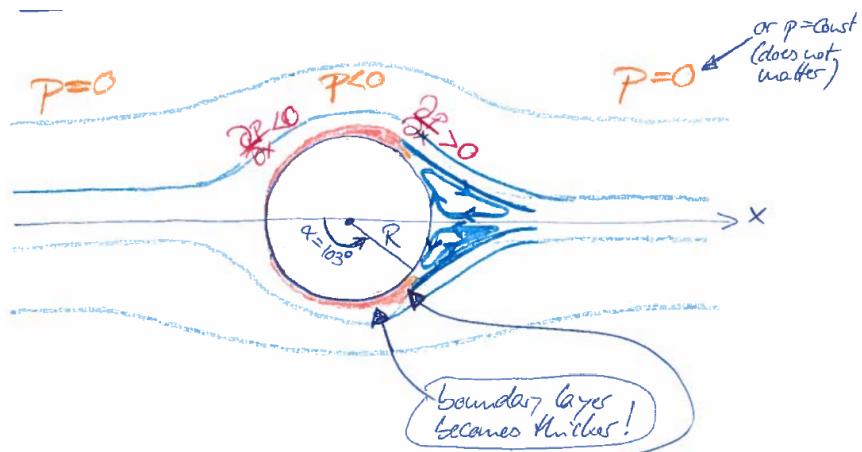
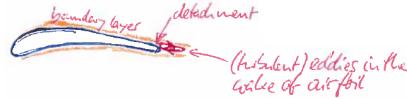


Figure 37:

The detachment point is at the separation of the boundary layer. When  $v \approx 0$  there is no kinetic energy to run against the pressure gradient.

**Remark:** separation of boundary layers is a big issue in mechanical engineering; for example: design of airfoils, wind-turbine blades etc.



In case of separation the lift decreases, which can lead to airplane crash. It would also lead to a substantial rise in the overall drag (more friction). This would require more engine power and therefore more fuel for an airplane. For a wind turbine it would mean less power generation.

Engineer's dream: construct airfoils without turbulent wake to mimic shark skin or fish scales.

## 6.7 Solution of Prandtl equations for free boundary layers (66-71)

Figure 38 shows a 2-dimensional laminar jet flow generated from a flow through a long slit streaming into a resting fluid.

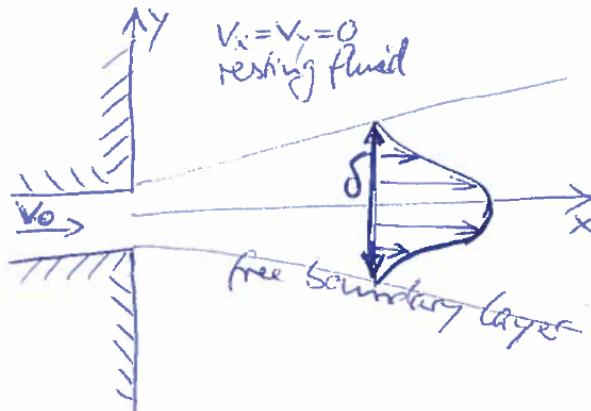


Figure 38:

We use the Prandtl equations with the similarity ansatz:

$$v_x(x, y) = v_{\max}(x) g \left( \frac{y}{\delta(x)} \right) \quad (6.79)$$

$$\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} = 0 \Rightarrow v_x = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y}, \quad v_y = -\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \quad (6.80)$$

$$\psi = v_{\max}(x) \delta(x) f \left( \frac{y}{\delta(x)} \right) \quad (6.81)$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} = v_{\max} \delta f' \frac{1}{\delta} = v_{\max} f' = v_{\max} g = v_x \quad (6.82)$$

$$v_y = -\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} = -v'_{\max} \delta f - v_{\max} \delta' f - v_{\max} \delta f' \frac{(-y) \delta'}{\delta^2} \quad (6.83)$$

$$\partial_x v_x = v'_{\max} f' + v_{\max} f'' \frac{(-y) \delta'}{\delta^2} \quad (6.84)$$

$$\partial_y v_x = v_{\max} f'' \frac{1}{\delta} \quad (6.85)$$

$$\partial_x^2 v_x = \frac{v_{\max}}{\delta^2} f''' \quad (6.86)$$

$$\begin{aligned} v_x \partial_x v_x + v_y \partial_y v_x - \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \partial_y^2 v_x &= v_{\max} f' \left\{ v'_{\max} f' - v_{\max} \frac{y \delta'}{\delta^2} f'' \right\} \\ &\quad - \left\{ v'_{\max} \delta f + v_{\max} d' f - v_{\max} \frac{y \delta'}{\delta} f' \right\} v_{\max} \frac{1}{\delta} f'' \quad (6.87) \\ &\quad - \frac{\mu}{\rho_0^2} \frac{v_{\max}}{\delta^2} f''' \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= v_{\max} v'_{\max} f'^2 - v_{\max} v'_{\max} f f'' - v_{\max}^2 \frac{\delta'}{\delta} f f'' \\ &\quad - \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \frac{v_{\max}}{\delta^2} f''' \quad (6.88) \end{aligned}$$

$$\stackrel{!}{=} 0 \quad (6.89)$$

All four terms in (6.88) have the form  $\alpha_i(x)\beta_i(x)$  for ( $i = 1, \dots, 4$ ). The sum of these four terms has to be zero. This means that  $\alpha_1(x) \sim \alpha_2(x) \sim \alpha_3(x) \sim \alpha_4(x)$ .

Ansatz:

$$v_{\max}(x) = c_1 x^m \quad (6.90)$$

$$\delta(x) = c_2 x^n \quad (6.91)$$

**Remark:** we expect  $m < 0$  (decreasing velocity with penetration depth) and  $n > 0$  (increasing thickness of jet with penetration depth).

Sum of the 4 terms:

$$c_1^2 m x^{2m-1} (f'^2 - f f'') - c_1^2 x^{2m} \frac{n}{x} f f'' - \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \frac{c_1}{c_2^2} \frac{x^m}{x^{2n}} f''' = 0 \quad (6.92)$$

$$2m - 1 = m - 2n \quad (6.93)$$

$$m(f'^2 - f f'') n f f'' - \frac{\mu}{\rho_0} \frac{1}{c_1 c_2^2} f''' = 0 \quad (6.94)$$

This differential equation determines the velocity profile

$$g\left(\frac{y}{\delta(x)}\right) = f'\left(\frac{y}{\delta(x)}\right) \quad (6.95)$$

of the jet. We are not going to solve this, but we want to know  $m$  and  $n$ , because they determine  $v_{\max}(x)$  and  $\delta(x)$ . We need a second equation for  $m$  and  $n$ .

**Second equation:** conservation of momentum flux. Momentum flux through the red plane in Figure 39 is identical to the momentum flux through the blue plane. This means that the integrated momentum flux does not depend on  $x$ .

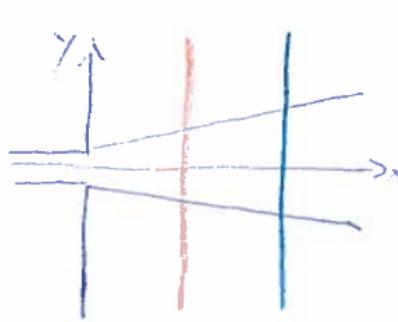


Figure 39:

$$\text{momentum} = \rho_0 \Delta V \cdot v_x \quad (6.96)$$

$$= \rho_0 \Delta A v_x \Delta t v_x \quad (6.97)$$

Momentum flux:

$$\frac{\text{momentum}}{\Delta A \Delta t} = \rho_0 v_x^2 \quad (6.98)$$

#### Proof of conservation of momentum flux

If

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho_0 v_x^2(x) dy = \text{constant} \quad (6.99)$$

then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho_0 v_x^2(x) dy = 0 \quad (6.100)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho_0 v_x^2(x) dy = 2\rho_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( v_x \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} \right) dy \quad (6.101)$$

$$= 2\mu \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - 2\rho_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} v_y \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} dy \quad (6.102)$$

$$= -2\rho_0 v_x v_y \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} + 2\rho_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} dy \quad (6.103)$$

$$= -2\rho_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} v_x \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} dy \quad (6.104)$$

$$= 0 \quad (6.105)$$


---

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho_0 v_x^2 dy = \rho_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} v_{\max}^2(x) g^2 \left( \frac{y}{\delta(x)} \right) dy \quad (6.106)$$

$$= \rho_0 v_{\max}^2(x) \delta(x) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g^2(z) dz \quad (6.107)$$

$$\stackrel{!}{=} \text{constant} \quad (6.108)$$

$$v_{\max}^2(x) \delta(x) = \text{constant} \quad (6.109)$$

$$c_1^2 x^{2m} c_2 x^n = \text{constant} \quad (6.110)$$

$$2m + n = 0 \quad (6.111)$$

$$m + 2n = 1, \quad 2m + n = 0 \quad (6.112)$$

↓

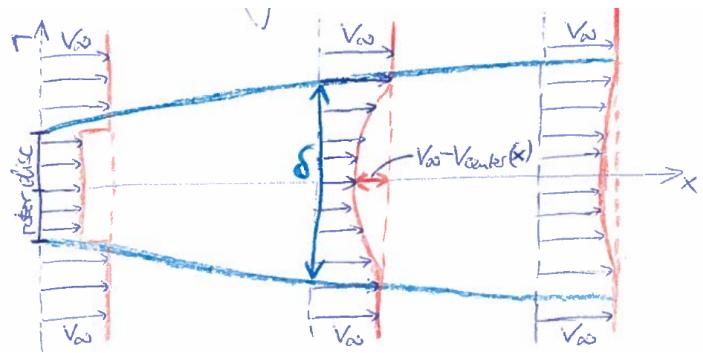
$$m = -\frac{1}{3}, \quad n = \frac{2}{3} \quad (6.113)$$

$$v_{\max}(x) \sim \frac{1}{x^{1/3}} \quad (6.114)$$

$$\delta(x) \sim x^{2/3} \quad (6.115)$$

**Remark:** negative jet flow

Wake behind a wind turbine can be modeled as a negative jet.



$$v_x(x, r) = v_\infty - v_{\text{center}}(x) g \left( \frac{r}{\delta(x)} \right) \quad (6.116)$$

## 7 Small-amplitude surface waves (73-84)

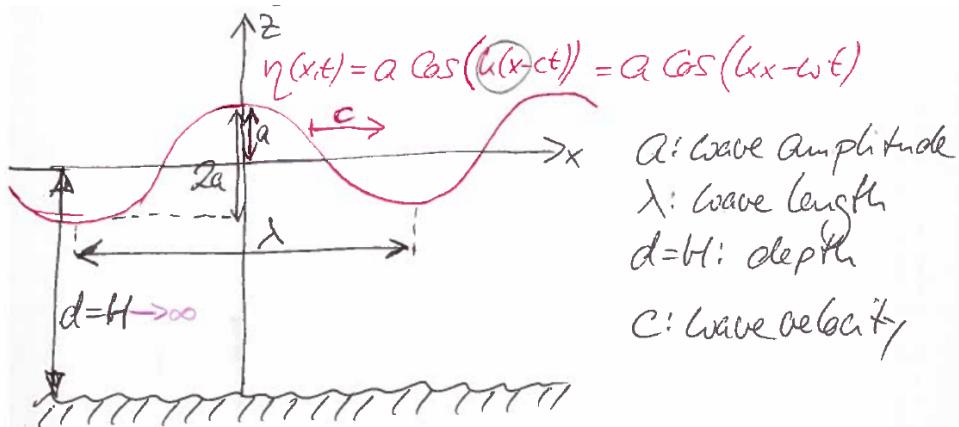


Figure 40:

Figure 40 shows a surface wave. Here  $k$  is the wave number,  $\tau$  the oscillation period, and  $\omega$  the circular frequency.

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \quad (7.1)$$

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi}{\tau} = 2\pi f \quad (7.2)$$

$$c = \frac{\lambda}{\tau} = \lambda f = \frac{\omega}{k} \quad (7.3)$$

**Questions:**

1. how does  $c$  depend on  $\lambda, d, a, \dots$
2. how does the fluid particles (below the surface) move?
3. pathlines? expectation: more fluid motion close to the surface than in great depth.

**Assumptions:** Incompressibility:

$$\rho = \rho_0, \quad \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} = 0 \quad (7.4)$$

No friction. Euler equation:

$$\rho_0 \left( \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} + (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u} \right) = \vec{f}_{\text{ext}} - \vec{\nabla} p \quad (7.5)$$

Gravitational force density:

$$\vec{f}_{\text{ext}} = -\rho_0 g \vec{e}_z = -\vec{\nabla}(\rho_0 g z) \quad (7.6)$$

small amplitude waves:

$$a \ll \lambda, d \quad (7.7)$$

deep water waves:

$$\lambda \ll d \quad (7.8)$$

$$a \ll \lambda \ll d \quad (7.9)$$

$$\left| \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} \right| \approx \frac{\Delta u}{\Delta t} \approx \frac{u - 0}{\tau/4} \approx \frac{u}{\tau} \approx \frac{a}{\tau^2} \quad (7.10)$$

$$|(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u}| \approx u \frac{\Delta u}{\Delta x} \quad (7.11)$$

$$\approx u \frac{u}{\lambda} = \frac{u^2}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \frac{a^2}{\tau^2} \quad (7.12)$$

$$\frac{|(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u}|}{|\partial \vec{u} / \partial t|} \approx \frac{\frac{1}{\lambda} \frac{a^2}{\tau^2}}{\frac{a}{\tau^2}} = \frac{a}{\lambda} \ll 1 \quad (7.13)$$

"Surviving" part of the Euler equation:

$$\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} = -\vec{\nabla} \left( gz + \frac{p}{\rho_0} \right) \quad (7.14)$$

we do the curl

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} = -\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla} \left( gz + \frac{p}{\rho_0} \right) = 0 \quad (7.15)$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{u} = \text{constant} \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \quad (7.16)$$

This constant has to be the same everywhere:

$$\text{constant}(z = 0) = \text{constant}(z = -\infty) = 0 \quad (7.17)$$

$$\vec{u} = \vec{\nabla} \Phi \quad (7.18)$$

with incompressibility

$$0 = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \Phi = \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \Phi(x, z, t) \quad (7.19)$$

**Question:** how shall we solve this linear differential equation?

We solve it via factorization:

$$\Phi(x, z, t) = X(x)Z(z)T(t) \quad (7.20)$$

$$\frac{1}{X(x)Z(z)T(t)} \left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} (X(x)Z(z)T(t)) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} (X(x)Z(z)T(t)) \right] = \frac{1}{X(x)} \frac{\partial^2 X(x)}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{Z(z)} \frac{\partial^2 Z(z)}{\partial z^2} \quad (7.21)$$

$$= 0 \quad (7.22)$$

$$\frac{1}{X(x)} \frac{\partial^2 X(x)}{\partial x^2} = \text{constant} = \frac{1}{Z(z)} \frac{\partial^2 Z(z)}{\partial z^2} \quad (7.23)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 X(x)}{\partial x^2} + k^2 X(x) = 0 \quad (7.24)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 Z(z)}{\partial z^2} + k^2 Z(z) = 0 \quad (7.25)$$

$$X(x) = e^{\pm ikx} \quad (7.26)$$

$$Z(z) = e^{\pm kz} \quad (7.27)$$

$$\Phi(x, z, t) = A e^{\pm ikx} e^{\pm kz} T(t) \quad (7.28)$$

## 7.1 First boundary condition

( $z = -d = -\infty$ )

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{u}|_{z=-\infty} &= 0 \\ \Phi(z = -\infty) &= \text{constant} = 0 \end{aligned} \quad \Downarrow \quad (7.29)$$

$$\Phi(x, z, t) = f_+(x, t) e^{kz} + f_-(x, t) e^{-kz} \quad (7.30)$$

$$\Phi(x, c, t) = A e^{\pm ikx} e^{kz} T(t) \quad (7.31)$$

## 7.2 Second boundary condition

(surface)

$$p(x, z, t)|_{z=\eta(x, t)} = p_0 \quad (7.32)$$

$$\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\vec{\nabla} \Phi) = -\vec{\nabla} \left( gz + \frac{p}{\rho_0} \right) \quad (7.33)$$

↓

$$\vec{\nabla} \left( \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} + gz + \frac{p}{\rho_0} \right) = 0 \quad (7.34)$$

$$\left( \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} + gz + \frac{p}{\rho_0} \right) \Big|_{z=\eta(x,t)} = \left( \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} + gz \right) + \frac{p_0}{\rho_0} = \text{constant} \quad (7.35)$$

Gauge transformation:

$$\Phi \rightarrow \Phi + \left( \text{constant} - \frac{p_0}{\rho_0} \right) t \quad (7.36)$$

We are allowed to do this because the velocity field  $\vec{u} = \vec{\nabla} \Phi$  does not change with this transformation.

$$\left( \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} + gz \right) \Big|_{z=\eta(x,t)} = 0 \quad (7.37)$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} \Big|_{z=\eta(x,t)} = -g\eta(x,t) \quad (7.38)$$

If we want to determine  $\Phi$  i.e.  $T(t)$  we need another equation relating  $\Phi$  and  $\eta$ , so that we get rid of  $\eta$ . This is the kinematic boundary condition.

### 7.3 Kinematic boundary condition

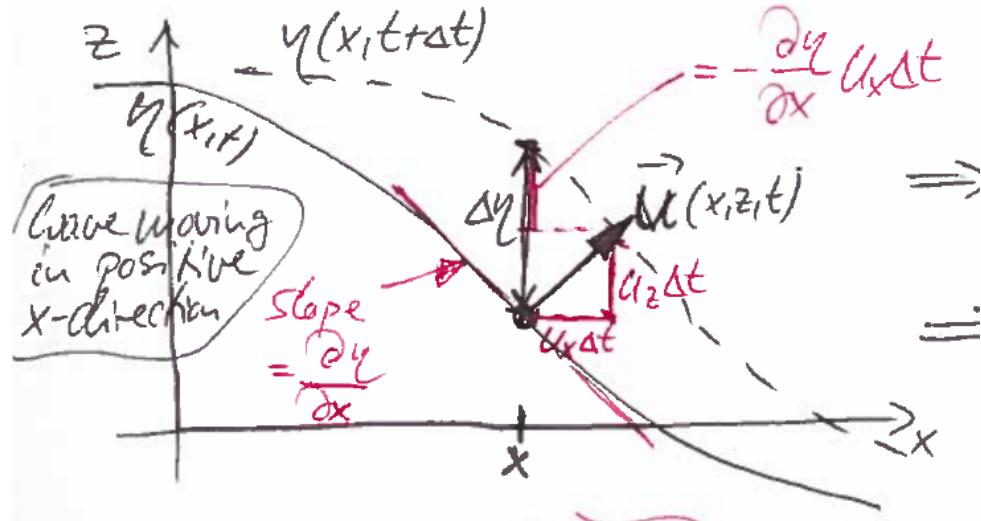


Figure 41:

$$\Delta\eta = u_z \Delta t - \frac{\partial\eta}{\partial x} u_x \Delta t \quad (7.39)$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$\frac{\partial\eta}{\partial t} \approx \frac{\Delta\eta}{\Delta t} \quad (7.40)$$

$$= u_z - \frac{\partial\eta}{\partial x} u_x \quad (7.41)$$

$$\approx u_z \quad (7.42)$$

$$\frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial x} \Big|_{z=\eta} = u_z \Big|_{z=\eta(x,t)} = \frac{\partial\eta(x,t)}{\partial t} \quad (7.43)$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{(-1)}{g} \frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial t} \Big|_{z=\eta} \right) \quad (7.44)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{g} \frac{\partial^2\Phi}{\partial t^2} \Big|_{z=\eta} \quad (7.45)$$

again  $a \ll \lambda$

$$\frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial z} \Big|_{z \approx 0} + \frac{1}{g} \frac{\partial^2\Phi}{\partial t^2} \Big|_{z \approx 0} = 0 \quad (7.46)$$

Now we can determine  $T(t)$  by inserting the expression for  $\Phi$  in (7.31).

$$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial z} \Big|_{z=0} = Ae^{\pm ikx} ke^{kz} T(t) \Big|_{z=0} \quad (7.47)$$

$$= Ae^{\pm ikx} T(t) \quad (7.48)$$

$$\stackrel{!}{=} -\frac{1}{g} \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial t^2} \Big|_{z=0} = -\frac{1}{g} Ae^{\pm ikx} \frac{\partial^2 T(t)}{\partial t^2} \quad (7.49)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 T(t)}{\partial t^2} + gkT(t) = 0 \quad (7.50)$$

$$T(t)e^{\pm i\sqrt{gk}t} = e^{\pm i\omega t} \quad (7.51)$$

$$\Phi(x, z, t) = Ae^{kz}e^{\pm ikx}e^{\pm i\omega t} \quad (7.52)$$

Using Euler relations this can be rewritten as

$$\Phi(x, z, t) = Ae^{kz} \sin(kx - \omega t) \quad (7.53)$$

From this expression for the velocity potential we can calculate the surface function  $\eta(x, t)$  via the relation (7.38):

$$\eta(x, t) = \frac{(-1)}{g} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} \Big|_{z=\eta(x,t)} \quad (7.54)$$

$$= \frac{(-1)}{g} A(-\omega) \cos(kx - \omega t) e^{kz} \Big|_{z=\eta} \quad (7.55)$$

$$= \frac{\omega}{g} A \cos(kx - \omega t) e^{k\eta(x,t)} \quad (7.56)$$

$$= \frac{\omega}{g} A \cos(kx - \omega t) \quad (7.57)$$

This is the expression as in Figure 40. The wave velocity is given by

$$c = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{\sqrt{gk}}{k} = \sqrt{\frac{g}{k}} = \sqrt{\frac{g\lambda}{2\pi}} \quad (7.58)$$

Surface waves with a large wave length propagate faster than those with a short wave length.

**Question:** how does the motion of the fluid particles look like?

$$u_x = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} = Ake^{kz} \cos(kx - \omega t) \quad (7.59)$$

$$u_z = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial z} = Ake^{kz} \sin(kx - \omega t) \quad (7.60)$$

order of magnitude estimate for the velocity amplitude:

$$\mathcal{O}(u_x) = \mathcal{O}(u_z) = Ak = \frac{g}{\omega} ak = a \frac{gk^2}{\omega^2} \frac{\omega}{k} \quad (7.61)$$

$$= a \frac{gk^2}{\sqrt{gk^2}} c = akc \quad (7.62)$$

$$= a \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} c = 2\pi \frac{a}{\lambda} c \quad (7.63)$$

$$\mathcal{O}(u_x) = \mathcal{O}(u_z) \ll c \quad (7.64)$$

Fluid particle is not moving with the wave velocity; its velocity is much smaller. The fluid particle is more or less at a fixed position; it is oscillating around this fixed position with a small amplitude:

$$u_x \approx Ake^{kz_0} \cos(kx_0 - \omega t) \quad (7.65)$$

$$u_z \approx Ake^{kz_0} \sin(kx_0 - \omega t) \quad (7.66)$$

### Pathline of a fluid particle

$$u_x = \frac{dx}{dt} \quad (7.67)$$

$$u_z = \frac{dz}{dt} \quad (7.68)$$

$$x - x_0 = -\frac{Ak}{\omega} e^{kz_0} \sin(kx_0 - \omega t) \quad (7.69)$$

$$z - z_0 = -\frac{Ak}{\omega} e^{kz_0} \cos(kx_0 - \omega t) \quad (7.70)$$

Fluid particle moves in a circle (see Figure 42):

$$(x - x_0)^2 + (z - z_0)^2 = \left( \frac{Ak}{\omega} e^{kz_0} \right)^2 \quad (7.71)$$

with radius

$$R = \frac{Ak}{\omega} e^{kz_0} = \frac{g}{\omega} \frac{k}{\omega} a e^{kz_0} \quad (7.72)$$

$$= a e^{kz_0} \quad (7.73)$$

So far we have discussed a pure wave, which is characterized by the wave number  $k$  and which travels with  $c = \sqrt{\frac{g}{k}} = \sqrt{\frac{g\lambda}{2\pi}}$ . The most general solution describing the spatio-temporal dynamics of the water surface is obtained by a superposition of different pure waves:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(x, z, t) = & \int_0^k dk \left[ A(k) e^{i(kx + \omega t)} + B(k) e^{-i(kx + \omega t)} \right. \\ & \left. + C(k) e^{i(kx - \omega t)} + D(k) e^{-i(kx - \omega t)} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (7.74)$$

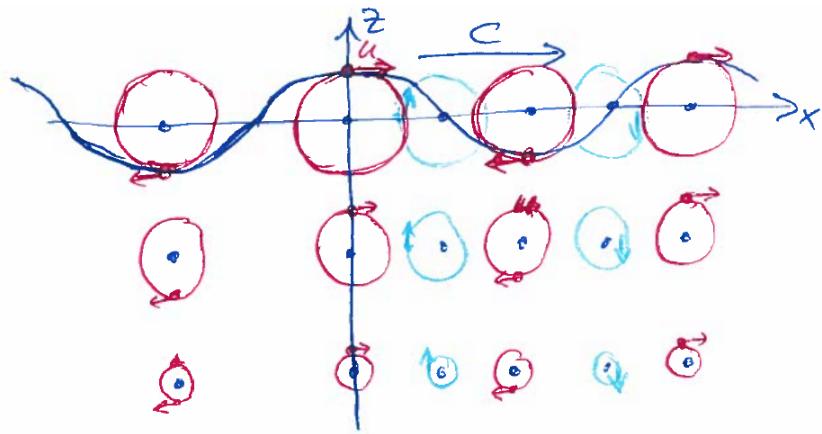


Figure 42:

**Remark:** perturbation of a flat surface

A wave generated by this disturbance contains several different wave numbers  $k$ . Initial wave form is not stable; it decays since different  $k$  components propagate with different phase velocities.

**Remark:** small-amplitude surface waves at a finite depth ( $d < \infty$ )

$$c = \sqrt{\frac{g}{k} \tanh(kd)} \quad (7.75)$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{g\lambda}{2\pi} \tanh\left(2\pi \frac{d}{\lambda}\right)} \quad (7.76)$$

$$d \gg \lambda : \tanh(x \gg 1) = 0 \Rightarrow c = \sqrt{\frac{g\lambda}{2\pi}} \quad (7.77)$$

$$d \ll \lambda : \tanh(x \ll 1) = 0 \Rightarrow c = \sqrt{gd} \quad (7.78)$$

### More surface waves:

- non-linear waves ( $\lambda \gg d$ ): solitons
- monster waves
- wind-wave interaction
- wave energy

## 8 Sound waves (85-88)

Sound waves are pressure (density) waves.

$$p = p_0 + \tilde{p}, \quad \tilde{p} \ll p_0 \quad (8.1)$$

$$\rho = \rho_0 + \tilde{\rho}, \quad \tilde{\rho} \ll \rho_0 \quad (8.2)$$

$$\rho = \rho_0(1 + \kappa(p - p_0)) \quad (8.3)$$

$$\tilde{\rho} = \rho_0 \kappa \tilde{p} \quad (8.4)$$

Assumption:

$$\vec{v} = 0 + \tilde{\vec{v}} \quad (8.5)$$

Euler equation without friction:

$$\rho \left( \frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} + (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{v} \right) = -\vec{\nabla} p \quad (8.6)$$

$$(\rho_0 + \tilde{\rho}) \frac{\partial \tilde{\vec{v}}}{\partial t} + (\rho_0 + \tilde{\rho}) (\tilde{\vec{v}} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \tilde{\vec{v}} = -\vec{\nabla} \tilde{p} \quad (8.7)$$

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{\vec{v}}}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \vec{\nabla} \tilde{p} \quad (8.8)$$

Equation of continuity:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \vec{\nabla} (\rho \vec{v}) = 0 \quad (8.9)$$

↓

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{\rho}}{\partial t} + \vec{\nabla} ((\rho_0 + \tilde{\rho}) \tilde{\vec{v}}) = 0 \quad (8.10)$$

↓

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{\rho}}{\partial t} + \rho_0 \vec{\nabla} \tilde{\vec{v}} = 0 \quad (8.11)$$

divergence of (8.8):

$$\vec{\nabla} \frac{\partial \tilde{\vec{v}}}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \tilde{p} \quad (8.12)$$

time derivative of (8.11):

$$\frac{\partial^2 \tilde{\rho}}{\partial t^2} + \rho_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \vec{\nabla} \tilde{\vec{v}} = 0 \quad (8.13)$$

$$\Delta \tilde{p} = -\rho_0 \vec{\nabla} \frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} \quad (8.14)$$

$$= \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{p}}{\partial t^2} \quad (8.15)$$

Wave equation:

$$\Delta \tilde{p} = \rho_0 \kappa \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{p}}{\partial t^2} = \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{p}}{\partial t^2} \quad (8.16)$$

In 1+1 dimensions:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \tilde{p}}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{p}}{\partial t^2} \quad (8.17)$$

Plane-wave solution:

$$\tilde{p} = A_p \cos(x - ct) \quad (8.18)$$

Here  $c$  is the speed of sound. Examples:

$$c_{\text{air}} = 340 \text{ m/s} \quad (8.19)$$

$$c_{\text{water}} = 1500 \text{ m/s} \quad (8.20)$$

"density wave":

$$\frac{\partial^2 \tilde{p}}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{p}}{\partial t^2} \Rightarrow \tilde{p} A_p \cos(x - ct) \quad (8.21)$$

Longitudinal "velocity wave":

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{v}_x}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{\rho_0} \frac{\partial \tilde{p}}{\partial x} = \frac{A_p}{\rho_0} \sin(x - ct) \quad (8.22)$$

↓

$$\tilde{v}_x = \frac{A_p}{\rho_0 c} \cos(x - ct) \quad (8.23)$$

Validity of approximation, which has neglected small quadratic terms in the Euler equation:

$$\frac{\left| \left( \vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \right) \vec{v} \right|}{\left| \frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} \right|} = \frac{\left| v_x \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} \right|}{\left| \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial t} \right|} \approx \frac{A_v^2}{A_v c} = \frac{A_v}{c} \approx \frac{|\vec{v}|}{c} \quad (8.24)$$

Typical velocity oscillations are much smaller than the speed of sound:

$$\frac{|\vec{v}|}{c} \ll 1. \quad (8.25)$$

**Example:** loudspeaker

$$f = 100 - 2000 \text{ Hz} \Rightarrow f_{\text{typical}} = 1000 \text{ Hz} \quad (8.26)$$

Amplitude of membrane displacement  $\Delta x \approx 1 \text{ mm}$

$$\Delta v \approx \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t / 2} \approx \frac{2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}}{10^{-3} \text{ s}} \quad (8.27)$$

$$= 2 \text{ m/s} \ll c_{\text{air}} \quad (8.28)$$

## 8.1 Outlook: shock waves

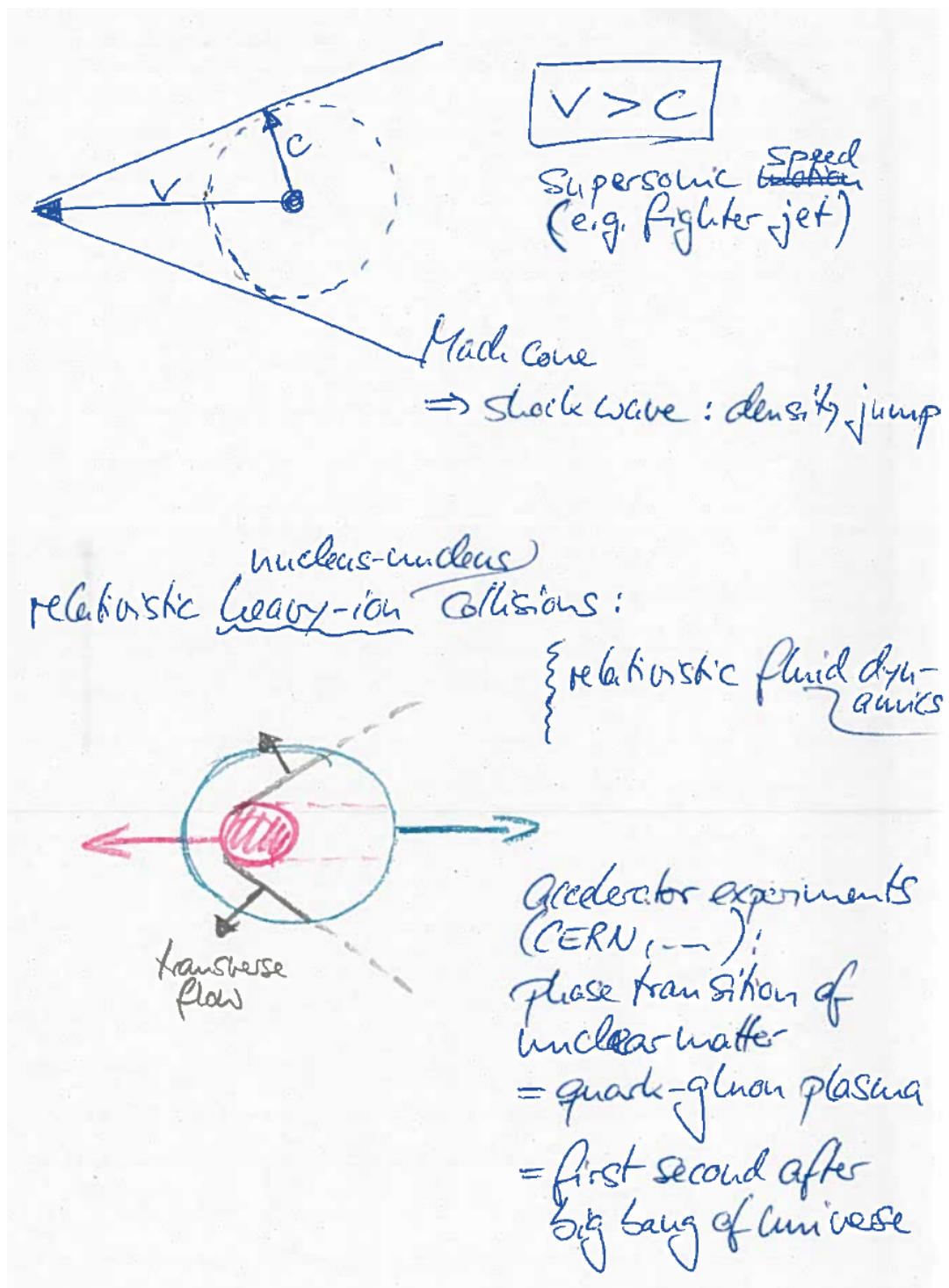


Figure 43:

## 9 Instabilities (89-105)

**Motivation:** Navier-Stokes equation in non-dimensional units with no external forces:

$$\frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} + (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{v} = -\vec{\nabla} p + \frac{1}{Re} \vec{\nabla}^2 \vec{v} \quad (9.1)$$

Reynolds number:

$$Re = \frac{\rho LV}{\mu} = \frac{\rho V^2 / L}{\mu V / L^2} = \frac{\text{inertia force density}}{\text{friction force density}} \quad (9.2)$$

As the Reynolds number increases, a stable flow becomes unstable, and a new stable flow emerges.

**Big question:** when does a stable flow become unstable?

Answer: linear stability analysis

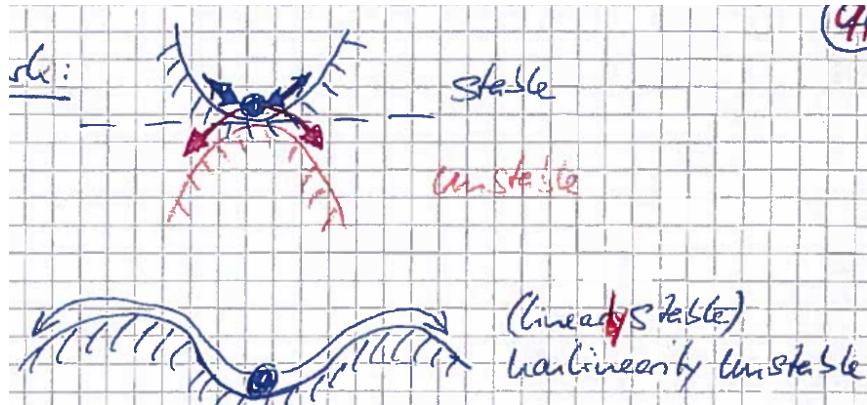


Figure 44:

### Sketch of linear stability analysis

Simplifying assumptions: stable flows are steady (stationary)

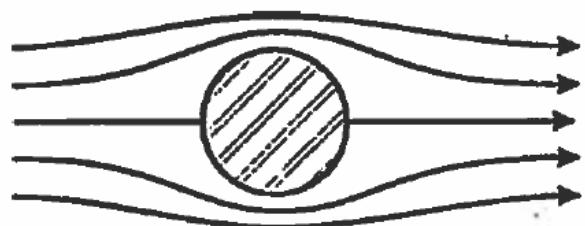
$$\vec{v}(\vec{r}, t) = \vec{U}(\vec{r}), \quad p(\vec{r}, t) = P(\vec{r}) \quad (9.3)$$

Introduce perturbations

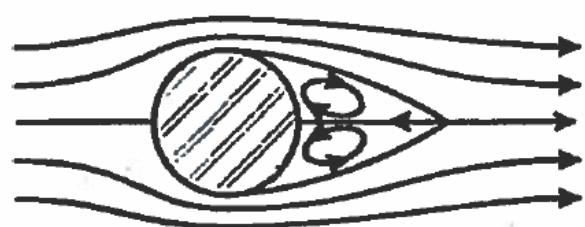
$$\vec{v}(\vec{r}, t) = \vec{U}(\vec{r}) + \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) \quad (9.4)$$

$$p(\vec{r}, t) = P(\vec{r}) + \tilde{p}(\vec{r}, t) \quad (9.5)$$

$$\frac{\partial(\vec{U} + \vec{u})}{\partial t} + [(\vec{U} + \vec{u}) \cdot \vec{\nabla}] (\vec{U} + \vec{u}) = -\vec{\nabla}(P + \tilde{p}) + \frac{1}{Re} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) (\vec{U} + \vec{u}) \quad (9.6)$$



$Re \approx 1$



$Re \approx 10$



$Re \approx 100$



$Re \geq 1000$

Figure 45:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \vec{U}}{\partial t} + (\vec{U} + \vec{\nabla})\vec{U} + \frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} + (\vec{U} + \vec{\nabla})\vec{u} \\ + (\vec{u} + \vec{\nabla})\vec{U} + (\vec{u} + \vec{\nabla})\vec{u} = -\vec{\nabla}P \frac{1}{Re} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{U} \\ - \vec{\nabla}\tilde{p} + \frac{1}{Re} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u} \end{aligned} \quad (9.7)$$

$$\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} + (\vec{U} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u} + (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{U} = -\vec{\nabla}\tilde{p} + \frac{1}{Re} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u} \quad (9.8)$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u} = 0 \quad (9.9)$$

$$\vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) = e^{\lambda t} \vec{u}(\vec{r}, 0) \quad (9.10)$$

$$\lambda \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{1}{Re} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) - \vec{\nabla}\tilde{p} - (\vec{U} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) - (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) \vec{U}(\vec{r}, t) \quad (9.11)$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) = 0 \quad (9.12)$$

This is an eigenvalue equation.

$$\lambda = \lambda(Re, \vec{U}) \quad (9.13)$$

depends on  $Re$  and  $\vec{U}(\vec{r})$  and  $\vec{u}(\vec{r}, 0)$ .

If  $\lambda < 0$ :  $\vec{U}(\vec{r})$  is stable and the perturbations damps out. If  $\lambda > 0$ :  $\vec{U}(\vec{r})$  is unstable and the perturbation grows.

### Linear stability analysis of the poor man's Navier-Stokes equation

$$\frac{\partial \vec{v}}{\partial t} = - [\vec{v} \cdot \vec{\nabla}] \vec{v} + \vec{\nabla} p + \frac{1}{Re} \vec{\nabla}^2 \vec{v} + \vec{f} \quad (9.14)$$

"analogy"

$$v_{t+1} - v_t = -2v_t^2 - v_t + 1 \quad (9.15)$$

Oversimplification: discrete time steps  $\Delta t = 1$ , no spatial structure, no vector.

$$v_{t+1} = 1 - 2v_t^2, \quad -1 \leq v_t \leq 1 \quad (9.16)$$

substitution

$$v_t = 2x_t - 1 \quad (9.17)$$

$\Downarrow$

$$x_{t+1} = 4x_t(1 - x_t), \quad 0 \leq x_t \leq 1 \quad (9.18)$$

generalization

$$x_{t+1} = rx_t(1 - x_t), \quad 0 \leq r \leq 4 \quad (9.19)$$

This is the famous logistic (quadratic) map of deterministic chaos.

The order parameter  $r$  is analogous to  $Re$ : different dynamic (temporal) patterns for different  $r$ .

As  $r$  increases an "old pattern" becomes unstable, and a "new pattern" emerges.

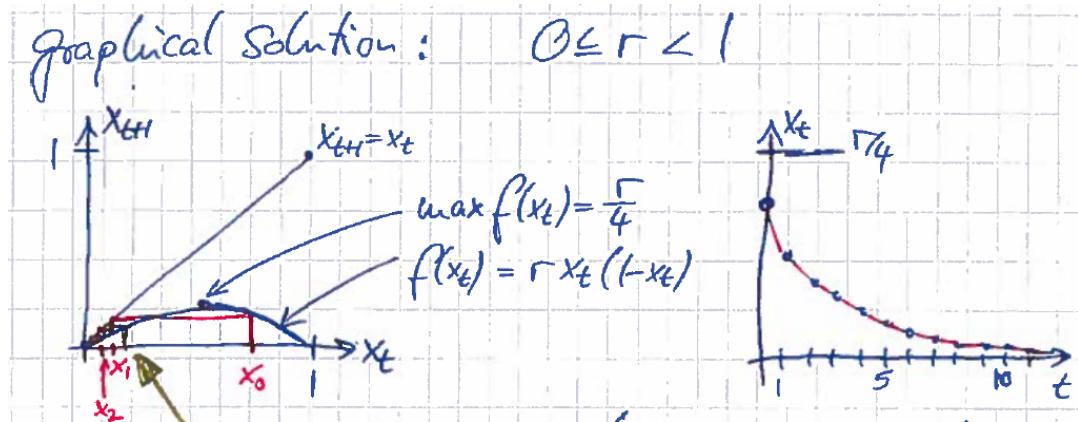


Figure 46:

### Linear stability analysis

$$x_{t+1} = x^* + \delta x_{t+1} = f(x_t) = f(x^* + \delta x_t) \quad (9.20)$$

$$\approx f(x^*) + f'(x^*)\delta x_t + \dots \quad (9.21)$$

Perturbations are only kept up to first order (linearization). Quadratic and higher order terms are neglected.

$$\left| \frac{\delta x_{t+1}}{\delta x_t} \right| = |f'(x^*)| \quad (9.22)$$

$$|f'(x^*)| < 1 : \quad |\delta x_t| = |f'(x^*)|^t |\delta x_0| = e^{\lambda t} |\delta x_0| \quad (9.23)$$

$$|f'(x^*)| > 1 : \quad |\delta x_t| = e^{\lambda t} |\delta x_0| \quad (9.24)$$

$$f(x) = rx(1-x) \quad (9.25)$$

$\Downarrow$

$$f'(x) = r[(1-x)-x] = r(1-2x) \quad (9.26)$$

$\Downarrow$

$$|f'(x^* = 0)| = r \quad (9.27)$$

$\Downarrow$

$$x^* = 0 \quad (9.28)$$

Stable fixed point for  $r < 1$ . Unstable fixed point for  $r > 1$ .

**Question:** what happens for  $r > 1$ ?

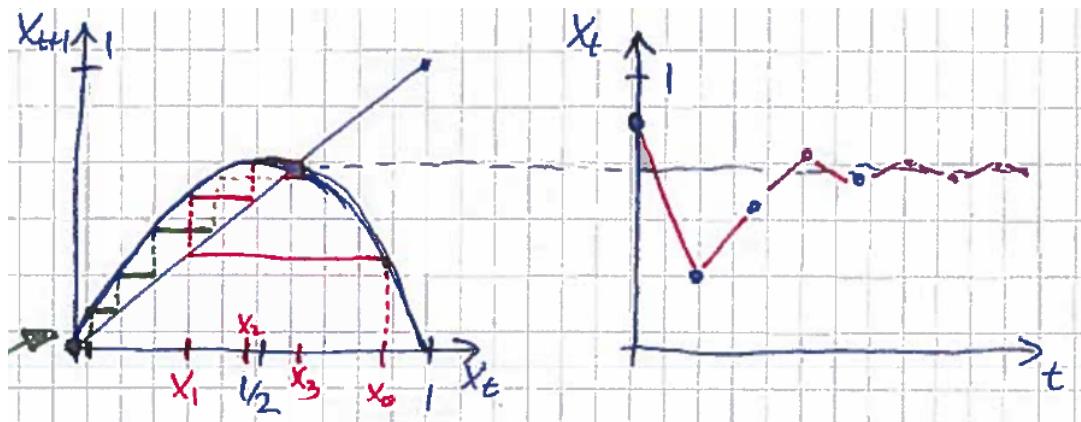


Figure 47:

Fixed points:

$$x^* = f(x^*) = rx^*(1-x^*) \quad (9.29)$$

$\Downarrow$

$$x_0^* = 0, \quad x_1^* = \frac{r-1}{r} \quad (9.30)$$

Stability:

$$f'(x_0^*) = r > 1 \quad (9.31)$$

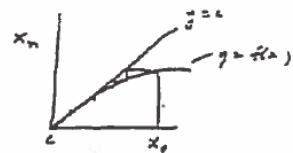
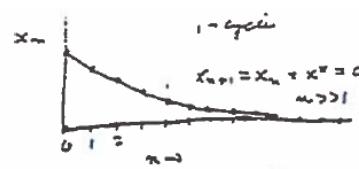
which means that  $x_0^*$  is an unstable fixed point.

$$|f'(x_1^*)| = \left| r \left( 1 - 2 \frac{r-1}{r} \right) \right| = |2-r| \quad (9.32)$$

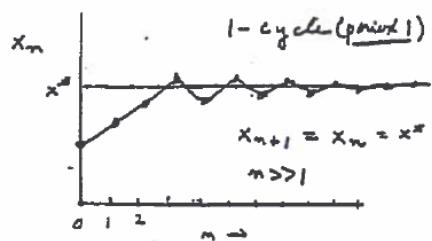
$$|f'(x_1^*)| < 1 \Rightarrow 1 < r < 4 \quad (9.33)$$

which means that  $x_1^*$  is a stable fixed point.

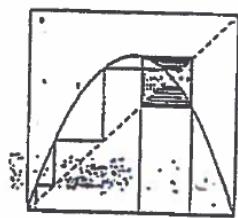
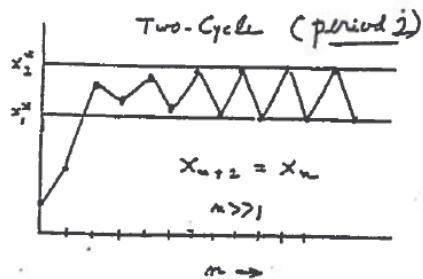
**Question:** what happens for  $r > 3$ ?



$$0 < \tau < 1$$

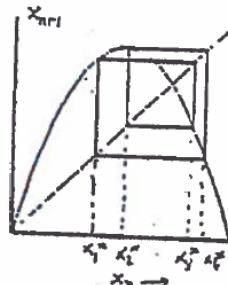
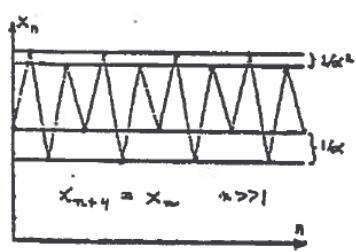


$$1 < \tau < \tau_1 = 3$$



$$\tau_1 < \tau < \tau_2$$

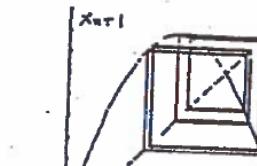
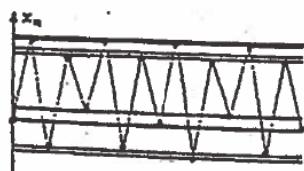
Fig. 11



$$\tau_2 < \tau < \tau_3$$

d)

8 cycle (period  $2^3 = 8$ )



$$\tau_3 < \tau < \tau_4$$

e)

Figure 48:

two cycle ( $r_1 = 3 < r < r_2 = ?$ ): jumps between two values  $x_1^*$  and  $x_2^*$ .

$$x_2^* = f(x_1^*) , \quad x_1^* = f(x_2^*) \quad (9.34)$$

↓

$$x_2^* = f(f(x_2^*)) , \quad x_1^* = f(f(x_1^*)) \quad (9.35)$$

$$f^{(2)}(x) = f(f(x)) = rf(x)(1 - f(x)) \quad (9.36)$$

$$= r^2x(x - 1)[1 - rx(1 - x)] \quad (9.37)$$

$$\left| \frac{df^{(2)}(x)}{dx} \right| < 1 \Rightarrow r_1 = 3 < r < r_2 = ? \quad (9.38)$$

stable two-cycle

$r_2 < r < r_3$  is a stable four-cycle

$$f^{(4)}(x) = f(f(f(f(x)))) \quad (9.39)$$

$$\left| \frac{df^{(4)}(x)}{dx} \right| < 1 \quad (9.40)$$

$$3 < r \leq r_\infty = 3.57... \quad (9.41)$$

2-cycle, 4-cycle, 8-cycle, ...

$$3.57... \leq r \leq 4 \quad (9.42)$$

Mostly chaotic.

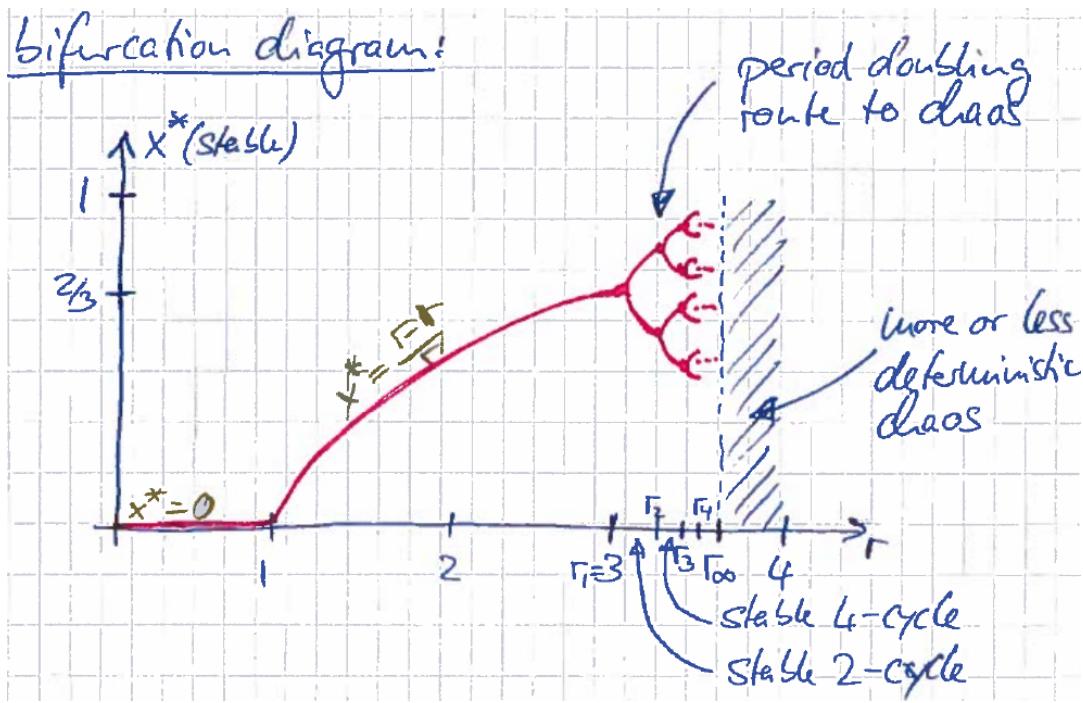


Figure 49:

**Question:** how can we characterize deterministic chaos?

Liapunov exponent:

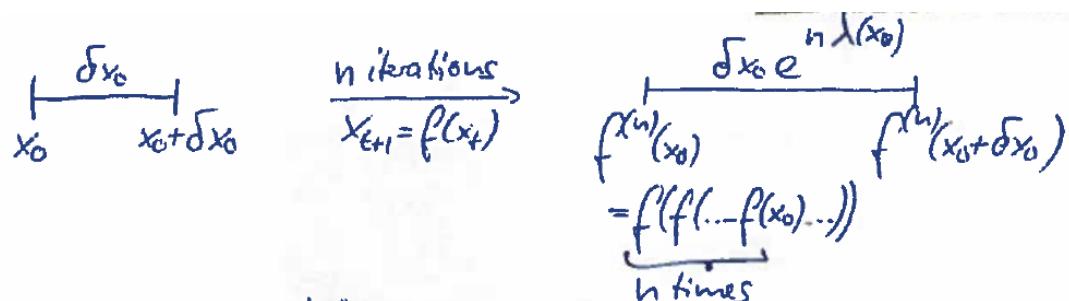


Figure 50:

$$\delta x_0 e^{n\lambda(x_0)} = |f^{(n)}(x_0 + \delta x_0) - f^{(n)}(x_0)| \quad (9.43)$$

$$\lambda(x_0) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{\delta x_0 \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{n} \ln \left| \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0 + \delta x_0) - f^{(n)}(x_0)}{\delta x_0} \right| \quad (9.44)$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \ln |(f^{(n)}(x_0))'| \quad (9.45)$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \ln |f'(x_{n-1}) \cdot f'(x_{n-2}) \cdot \dots \cdot f'(x_1) \cdot f'(x_0)| \quad (9.46)$$

$$\lambda(x_0) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \ln |f'(x_i)| \quad (9.47)$$

Attractive stable limit cycle (with period  $T = m$ )

$$\lambda(x_0) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \ln |f'(x_i^*)| < 0 \quad (9.48)$$

Neighboring phase space trajectories with nearly identical initial conditions converge towards each other.

Deterministic chaos:

$$\lambda(x_0) > 0 \quad (9.49)$$

neighboring trajectories diverge

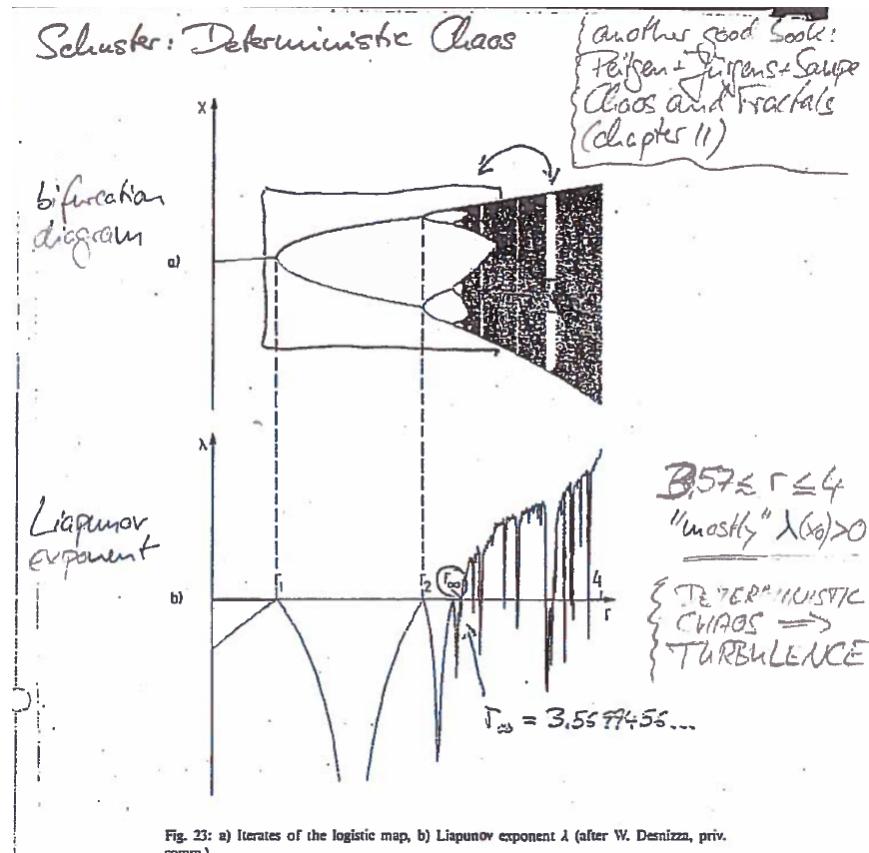


Fig. 23: a) Iterates of the logistic map, b) Liapunov exponent  $\lambda$  (after W. Desnizza, priv. comm.).

Figure 51:

**Special case (of the logistic map):  $r = 4$**

Observation:  $\lambda(x_0) > 0$  leads to divergence of neighboring trajectories. All values  $0 \leq x_t \leq 1$  occur (as  $t$  runs its course).

**Question:** what is the probability density for a specific x-value?

$$x_{t+1} = 4x_t(1 - x_t) \quad (9.50)$$

Substitution:

$$x_t = \frac{1}{2}[1 - \cos(2\pi y_t)] \quad (9.51)$$

$$t_{t+1} = \frac{1}{2}[1 - \cos(2\pi y_{t+1})] = 4x_t(1 - x_t) \quad (9.52)$$

$$= \frac{4}{2}[1 - \cos(2\pi y_t)] \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos(2\pi y_t) \right] \quad (9.53)$$

$$= [1 - \cos(2\pi y_t)][1 + \cos(2\pi y_t)] \quad (9.54)$$

$$= 1 - \cos^2(2\pi y_t) \quad (9.55)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}[\sin^2(2\pi y_t) + \cos^2(2\pi y_t)] - \cos^2(2\pi y_t) \quad (9.56)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}[\sin^2(2\pi y_t) - \cos^2(2\pi y_t)] \quad (9.57)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}[1 - \cos(4\pi y_t)] \quad (9.58)$$

Solution:

$$y_{t+1} = 2y_t, \quad 0 \leq y_t \leq 1 \quad (9.59)$$

$$y_t = 2^t y_0 \quad (9.60)$$

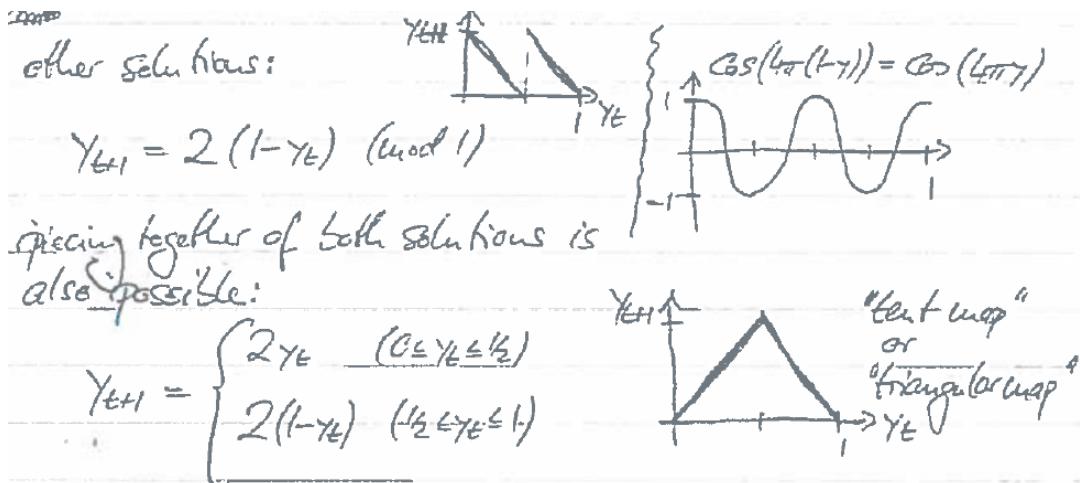


Figure 52:

Once again: sensitive dependence on initial conditions

$$y_0 = \alpha_1 2^{-1} + \alpha_2 2^{-2} + \alpha_3 2^{-3} + \dots = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha_i 2^{-i} \quad (9.61)$$

$$y_1 = 2y_0 \quad (9.62)$$

$$= \alpha_2 2^{-2} + \alpha_3 2^{-3} + \alpha_4 2^{-4} + \dots \quad (9.63)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1+1}^{\infty} \alpha_{i+1} 2^{-i} \quad (9.64)$$

$$y_2 = \dots = \sum_{i=1+1}^{\infty} \alpha_{i+2} 2^{-i} \quad (9.65)$$

$$\vdots \quad (9.66)$$

$$y_t = \sum_{i=1+1}^{\infty} \alpha_{i+t} 2^{-i} \quad (9.67)$$

$$y_0 = 0.\alpha_1\alpha_2\dots\alpha_n\alpha_{n+1}\dots \quad (9.68)$$

$$y'_0 = 0.\alpha_1\alpha_2\dots\alpha_n\alpha'_{n+1}\dots \quad (9.69)$$

$$|y_0 - y'_0| \leq \underbrace{0.00\dots01}_{(n-1) \text{ times}} = \frac{1}{2^n} \quad (9.70)$$

During the first  $n$  time steps the two trajectories  $y_i = f^{(i)}(y_0)$  and  $y'_i = f^{(i)}(y'_0)$  stay close together; thereafter they separate completely. Sensitive dependence on initial condition.

$$y_0 = 0.\alpha_1\alpha_2\alpha_3\dots = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha_i 2^{-i} \quad (9.71)$$

with random numbers  $\alpha_i = \{0, 1\}$ .

$\{y_t = f^{(t)}(y_0)\}$  uniformly distributed on  $[0, 1]$

$$\rho(y) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \delta(y - y_t) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (9.72)$$

Back to our original question:

invariant measure:

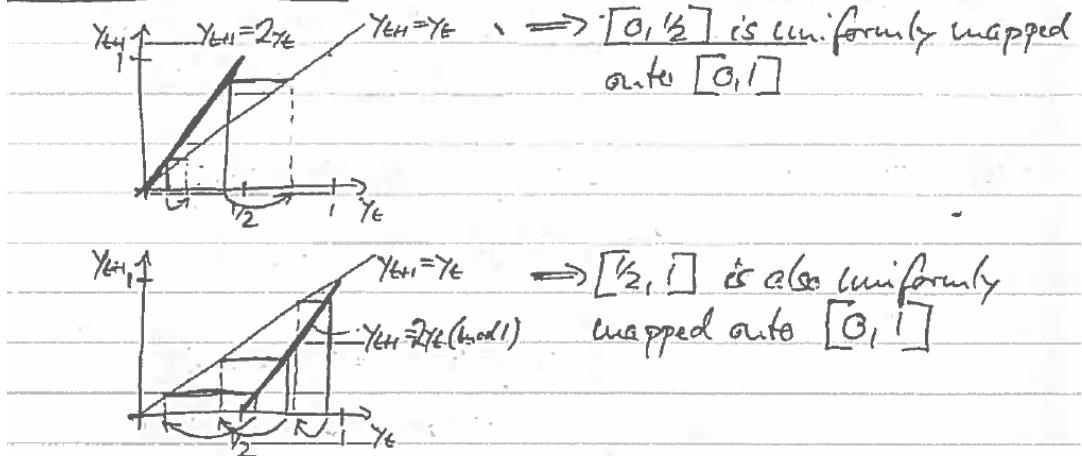


Figure 53:

$$1 = \int_0^1 \rho(y) dy = \int_0^1 dy = 2 \int_0^{1/2} dy \quad (9.73)$$

$$= 2 \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\pi \sin(2\pi y)} = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1 - \cos^2(2\pi y)}} \quad (9.74)$$

$$= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{[1 - (1 - 2x)^2]^{1/2}} = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{[4x - 4x^2]^{1/2}} = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\pi[x(1-x)]^{1/2}} dx \quad (9.75)$$

$$\rho(x) = \frac{1}{\pi[x(1-x)]^{1/2}} \quad (9.76)$$

invariant measure for the map  $x_{t+1} = 4x_t(1 - x_t)$ .

Transparency:

$$\rho(x), \quad x_{t+1} = 4x_t(1 - x_t) \quad (9.77)$$

$$\rho(v), \quad v_{t+1} = 1 - 2v_t^2 \quad (9.78)$$

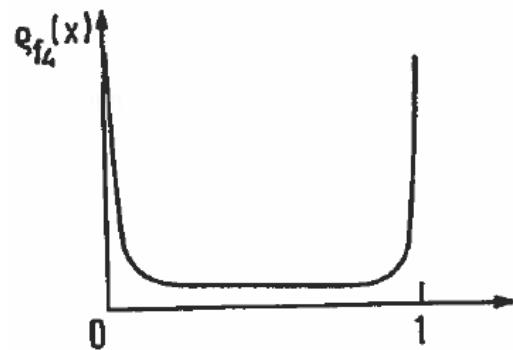


Figure 54:

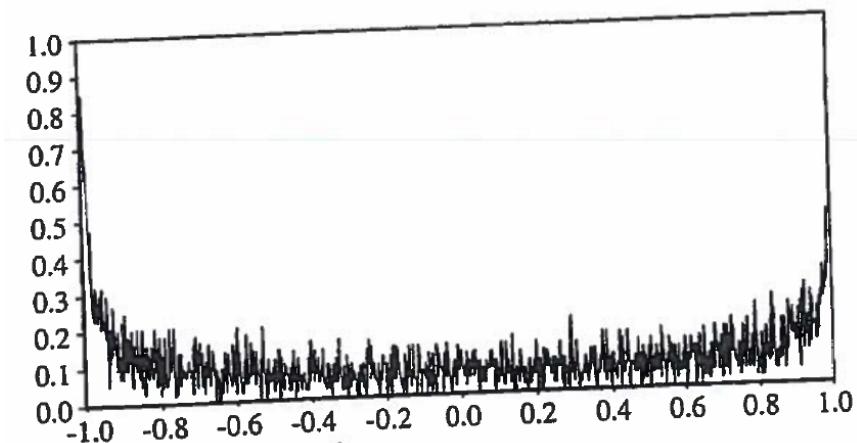


Figure 55:

I left out the last lecture on turbulence, pages: 106-112.