

Lecture 15 - The Navier Stokes Equation

* Up until now in class, we have focused on heat and mass transport. We have spent several weeks thinking about mathematical techniques to solve these problems.

* Now, we turn our attention to momentum transport, i.e. fluid mechanics. We will learn something about fluids and then we will put all three together!

I. The Cauchy Momentum Equation

A. A momentum balance.

* We first need to derive an equation for momentum transport.

To do this we will start with a momentum balance.

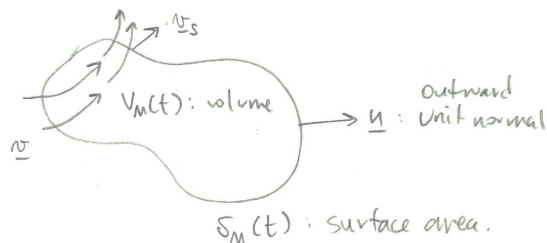
* For a particle, you know momentum conservation as Newton's 2nd Law:

$$\frac{d(m\vec{v})}{dt} = \underline{F}$$

* we can re-write this for a material volume. A material volume is a control volume of arbitrary shape with constant mass.

• constant mass implies that

$$\vec{v}_s = \vec{v}.$$



$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_M(t)} \rho \vec{v} dV = \underline{F}$$

* We want this in a differential form. Let's use what we learned before to manipulate this.

• Leibniz rule: $\frac{d}{dt} \int_{V(t)} b \, dV = \int_{V(t)} \frac{\partial b}{\partial t} \, dV + \int_{S(t)} b \, \underline{n} \cdot \underline{v}_S \, dS$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{V_m(t)} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\rho \underline{v}) \, dV + \int_{S_m(t)} \rho \underline{v} (\underline{n} \cdot \underline{v}) \, dS = \underline{F}$$

$$\rho v_i n_j v_j = n_j (\rho v_j v_i) = \underline{n} \cdot (\rho \underline{v} \underline{v})$$

• Divergence theorem: $\int_{S(t)} \underline{n} \cdot \underline{T} \, dS = \int_{V(t)} \nabla \cdot \underline{T} \, dV$
for tensors

$$\Rightarrow \int_{V_m(t)} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\rho \underline{v}) + \nabla \cdot (\rho \underline{v} \underline{v}) \right] dV = \underline{F}$$

product rule $\rho \underline{v}, \underline{v}$

$$\underbrace{\rho \frac{\partial \underline{v}}{\partial t} + \rho \underline{v} \cdot \nabla \underline{v}}_{\rho \frac{D \underline{v}}{Dt}} + \underbrace{\underline{v} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \underline{v} \nabla \cdot (\rho \underline{v})}_{\underline{v} \left[\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \underline{v}) \right]}$$

$$\underline{v} \left[\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \underline{v}) \right] \rightarrow 0, \text{ continuity}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{V_m(t)} \rho \frac{D \underline{v}}{Dt} \, dV = \underline{F}$$

B. Forces

* There are two kinds of forces that can act on a fluid:

- body forces that act everywhere in the volume (gravity, EM)
- surface forces that act on a surface (pressure, stress)

$$\underline{F} = \underline{F}_V + \underline{F}_S$$

$$\underline{F}_V = \int_{V(t)} \rho \underline{g} \, dV \quad \text{gravitational}$$

$$\underline{F}_S = \int_{S(t)} \underline{n} \cdot \underline{\sigma} \, dS \quad \text{stress.}$$

* $\underline{\underline{\sigma}}$ is a stress tensor. A stress vector $\underline{s} = \underline{n} \cdot \underline{\underline{\sigma}}$ is the stress on a surface with unit normal $\underline{n}$.

The stress tensor lets us define the stress for any direction.

- The stress tensor is symmetric. (exception ferrofluids).

This is a consequence of the conservation of angular momentum.

↓
torque's
from magnetiz
field.

- Pressure is an isotropic, normal stress that exists even when the fluid is stationary.

So, we use this to define a viscous stress tensor

$$\underline{\underline{\sigma}} = -P \underline{\underline{\delta}} + \underline{\underline{\tau}}$$

$\nwarrow$ pressure is in. $\nearrow$ isotropic & normal $\nwarrow$ definition of $\underline{\underline{\tau}}$.
 $\searrow$ $\underline{n}$ is out.

- P: same as thermodynamic pressure when compressible
i.e. $P = P(p, T)$
- when incompressible, P is a mechanical quantity only. (Lagrange multiplier)

* Let's put these together:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{F} &= \int_{V_M(t)} \rho \underline{g} \, dV + \int_{S_M(t)} \underline{n} \cdot (-P \underline{\underline{\delta}} + \underline{\underline{\tau}}) \, dV \\ &= \int_{V_M(t)} \left[\rho \underline{g} - \underbrace{\nabla \cdot (P \underline{\underline{\delta}})}_{\nabla \cdot (P \underline{\underline{\delta}}) = \nabla P} + \nabla \cdot \underline{\underline{\tau}} \right] dV \end{aligned}$$

divergence theorem

$$= \int_{V_M(t)} \left[\rho \underline{g} - \nabla P + \nabla \cdot \underline{\underline{\tau}} \right] dV$$

* Combine this with part A:

$$\int_{V_M(t)} \left[\rho \frac{D\mathbf{v}}{Dt} - \rho \mathbf{g} + \nabla P - \nabla \cdot \underline{\underline{\tau}} \right] dV = 0$$

* In the limit that $V_M(t) \rightarrow 0$, or for arbitrary $V_M(t)$, the quantity in the brackets has to be 0.

$$\boxed{\rho \frac{D\mathbf{v}}{Dt} = \rho \mathbf{g} - \nabla P + \nabla \cdot \underline{\underline{\tau}}}$$

* Comments:

- This is the Cauchy momentum Equation.
- A differential momentum balance. Equivalent to Newton's 2nd law.
- We cannot solve this equation until we know how $\underline{\underline{\tau}}$ relates to $\mathbf{v}$.
- This is a vector equation. One for v_x, v_y, v_z (for example) in Cartesian coordinates.

II. Constitutive laws for momentum

A. Fluid Kinematics

* To understand how stresses deform a fluid, we need to know a bit about how a fluid moves. This is called kinematics.

* Consider the Taylor series for the velocity about a point, $\mathbf{r}_1$ in space:

$$\text{(General T.S.)} \quad \underline{\underline{f}}(\mathbf{r}_2) = \underline{\underline{f}}(\mathbf{r}_1) + \underbrace{(\mathbf{r}_2 - \mathbf{r}_1)}_{\Delta \mathbf{r}} \cdot \nabla \underline{\underline{f}}(\mathbf{r}_1) + O(|\Delta \mathbf{r}|^2)$$



$$\underline{v}(\underline{r}_2) = \underline{v}(\underline{r}_1) + \Delta \underline{r} \cdot \underline{\nabla} \underline{v}(\underline{r}_1) + O(|\Delta \underline{r}|^2)$$

↑
focus on this term.

$$\underline{\nabla} \underline{v} = \underline{\Gamma} + \underline{\Omega} \quad \underline{\Gamma} = \frac{1}{2} [\underline{\nabla} \underline{v} + (\underline{\nabla} \underline{v})^t] \quad \text{symmetric part}$$

$$\underline{\Omega} = \frac{1}{2} [\underline{\nabla} \underline{v} - (\underline{\nabla} \underline{v})^t] \quad \text{anti-symmetric part}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{i.e. } \underline{\Gamma} = \underline{\Gamma}^t \quad ; \quad \underline{\Omega} = -\underline{\Omega}^t$$

$$\boxed{\underline{v}(\underline{r}_2) = \underline{v}(\underline{r}_1) + \Delta \underline{r} \cdot \underline{\Gamma} + \Delta \underline{r} \cdot \underline{\Omega} + O(|\Delta \underline{r}|^2)}$$

↑
translation

↑
deformation

↑
rotation

- this represents 3 ways a fluid can move: translation, deformation or rotation
- Book proves these modes are what I say. I don't have time for proof, but see §6.4 for proof.
- $\underline{\Gamma}$: rate of strain tensor, $\underline{\Omega}$: vorticity tensor
- * Two more things we can say to help us understand constitutive laws:

- An antisymmetric tensor can only have 3 independent elements: $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \omega_z - \omega_y \\ -\omega_z & 0 & \omega_x \\ \omega_y - \omega_x & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ So, it is often more convenient

to re-write $\underline{\Omega}$ using a vector. This vector is called the vorticity: $\underline{\Omega} = \frac{1}{2}(\underline{\epsilon} \cdot \underline{\omega})$

$$\underline{\Omega} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ijk} \omega_k$$

Proof in Deen about how this implies rigid body rotation.

↖ permutation symbol from cross product

- A fluid element can deform in two ways: shape change and volume change. The latter is called dilation.

We have already seen dilation, but let's be more explicit:

$$\frac{\Delta \text{vol}}{\Delta \text{time}} = \text{area} \cdot \text{velocity}$$

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = \int_S \underline{n} \cdot \underline{v} \, dS$$

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = \int_V \underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{v} \, dV$$

$$\frac{1}{V} \frac{dV}{dt} = \frac{1}{V} \int_V \underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{v} \, dV = \langle \underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{v} \rangle$$

$$\lim_{V \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{V} \frac{dV}{dt} = \underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{v} \quad \text{rate of change of volume at a single point.} \rightarrow \text{dilation.}$$

- the rate of dilation often gets a factor of $\frac{1}{3}$ in front of it because this is the average in 3 directions. $\underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{v} \rightarrow \text{sum of 3 directions.}$
 $\frac{1}{3} (\underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{v}) \rightarrow \text{avg}$

B. Newton's Law of Viscosity

- * Now, we are ready to write down a constitutive law for a fluid. Newton's key physical insight was that forces should be proportional to a rate of deformation in a fluid.

e.g. solid : force $\leftrightarrow$ deformation

fluid : force $\leftrightarrow$ rate of deformation

- * So, $\underline{\tau}$, the stress that exists when a fluid is moving only, should cause a rate of deformation, $\underline{\dot{\gamma}}$.

* mathematically, we say:

$$\underline{\underline{\tau}} \propto \underline{\underline{\Gamma}}$$

• in general, $\underline{\underline{\tau}} = \underline{\underline{A}} \underline{\underline{\Gamma}}$ where $\underline{\underline{A}}$ is a 4th order tensor! ↗ 81 components!

• If $\underline{\underline{\tau}}$ is symmetric (which it must be) & isotropic (which it often is), then one can show:

$$\underline{\underline{\tau}} = \underbrace{2\mu \left[\underline{\underline{\Gamma}} - \frac{1}{3} (\nabla \cdot \underline{\underline{v}}) \underline{\underline{\delta}} \right]}_{\text{shape changing part}} + \underbrace{3K \left[\frac{1}{3} (\nabla \cdot \underline{\underline{v}}) \underline{\underline{\delta}} \right]}_{\text{volume changing part}}$$

• Only 2 constants: μ - bulk viscosity
 K - dilational viscosity

• usually $K \ll \mu$. Also, for incompressible
 $\nabla \cdot \underline{\underline{v}} = 0$!

* So, for an isotropic, incompressible fluid

$$\underline{\underline{\tau}} = 2\mu \underline{\underline{\Gamma}}$$

* Of course, there are many fluids that are not so simple. These have some anisotropy or solid-like character. We won't say more about those in this class $\ddot{\smile}$. (Rheology!)

III. The Navier Stokes Equation

A. Putting it all together

* Now that we know $\underline{\underline{T}}$, let's combine with the Cauchy momentum equation:

$$\rho \frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = \rho \mathbf{g} - \nabla P + \underbrace{\nabla \cdot \underline{\underline{T}}}_{\nabla \cdot (2\mu \underline{\underline{\epsilon}})}$$

$$\nabla \cdot (2\mu \underline{\underline{\epsilon}}) = 2\mu \cdot \frac{1}{2} [\nabla \cdot (\nabla \mathbf{u}) + \nabla \cdot (\nabla \mathbf{u})^t]$$

$$= \mu [\partial_i (\partial_i u_j) + \partial_i (\partial_j u_i)]$$

↙ switch order of derivative

$$= \mu [\nabla^2 \mathbf{u} + \nabla (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u})]$$

0, already assumed incompressibility

$$= \mu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u}$$

$$\boxed{\rho \frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = \rho \mathbf{g} - \nabla P + \mu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u}}$$

* Comments:

- This is the famous Navier-Stokes equation.
- Assumes Newtonian fluid & incompressible.
Go back to CME if not.
- We often use a dynamic pressure:

$$\nabla \mathcal{P} \equiv \nabla P - \rho \mathbf{g}$$

(static pressure equation is $\nabla P = \rho \mathbf{g}$ or $\nabla \mathcal{P} = 0$)

$$\boxed{\rho \frac{D\mathbf{u}}{Dt} = -\nabla \mathcal{P} + \mu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u}}$$

- With the continuity equation ($\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$), this gives us 4 equations & 4 unknowns for $\mathbf{u}$ & p . Can now solve for $\mathbf{u}$.

- N-S. is a non-linear PDE. 2nd order in space, 1st order in time. No general solution. Solutions are not unique in general. Very hard PDE to solve. Entire careers dedicated to types of solutions.
- The best we can do is learn some classes of simplifications to help us start solving it. Even then we often have a PDE or perturbation problem to solve.

B. Dimensional Analysis of Navier Stokes

$$\rho \frac{D\mathbf{v}}{Dt} = -\nabla P + \mu \nabla^2 \mathbf{v}$$

- * Pick scales for fundamental dimensions:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ L & \gamma u & \pi \cdot L^2 \\ \text{will come from BC's} & \left[\begin{array}{cc} \text{domain size} & \text{convection scale} \end{array} \right] & ? \text{ unknown pressure scale.} \end{array}$$

- Note: Deen has an extra "process" time scale, τ_p . This isn't strictly necessary for now.

- * Define re-scaled variables:

$$\tilde{t} = t\gamma u/L, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{v}} = \mathbf{v}/u, \quad \tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}/L, \quad \tilde{\nabla} = \nabla L, \quad \tilde{P} = P/\pi$$

$$\rho \frac{u}{\gamma u} \frac{D\tilde{\mathbf{v}}}{D\tilde{t}} = -\frac{\pi}{L} \tilde{\nabla} \tilde{P} + \frac{\mu u}{L^2} \tilde{\nabla}^2 \tilde{\mathbf{v}}$$

} multiply by L
to put in units
of stress

$$\rho u^2 \frac{D\tilde{\mathbf{v}}}{D\tilde{t}} = -\pi \tilde{\nabla} \tilde{P} + \frac{\mu u}{L} \tilde{\nabla}^2 \tilde{\mathbf{v}}$$

↑
convective/inertial
stress

↑
viscous
stress.

* There are two possible stress scales. Both are equally valid. Let's pick one & see what happens.

* Let $\Pi = \mu u/L$, viscous stress scale.

$$\rho u^2 \frac{D\tilde{u}}{Dt} = - \frac{\mu u}{L} \tilde{\nabla} \tilde{P} + \frac{\mu u}{L} \tilde{\nabla}^2 \tilde{u}$$

$$\frac{\rho u^2}{\mu u/L} \frac{D\tilde{u}}{Dt} = - \tilde{\nabla} \tilde{P} + \tilde{\nabla}^2 \tilde{u}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \rho u^2 \frac{L}{\mu u} = \frac{\rho u L}{\mu} = Re$$

$$Re \frac{D\tilde{u}}{Dt} = - \tilde{\nabla} \tilde{P} + \tilde{\nabla}^2 \tilde{u}$$

- This form is useful when $\mu u/L \gg \rho u^2$, i.e. when the pressure is dominated by viscous forces. When this is the case $Re \ll 1$.
- Letting $Re \rightarrow 0$ gives

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} 0 &= - \tilde{\nabla} \tilde{P} + \tilde{\nabla}^2 \tilde{u} \\ \text{or} \\ 0 &= - \nabla P + \mu \nabla^2 u \end{aligned}}$$

This is called
Stokes
Equation

- It is linear! Good for slow flows of small things. "Creeping flow."

* Let $\Pi = \rho u^2$, inertial/convective scale.

$$\rho u^2 \frac{D\tilde{u}}{Dt} = - \rho u^2 \tilde{\nabla} \tilde{P} + \frac{\mu u}{L} \tilde{\nabla}^2 \tilde{u}$$

$$\frac{D\tilde{u}}{Dt} = - \tilde{\nabla} \tilde{P} + \frac{\mu u/L}{\rho u^2} \tilde{\nabla}^2 \tilde{u}$$

$$\frac{D\tilde{u}}{Dt} = -\tilde{\nabla}\tilde{P} + \frac{1}{Re}\tilde{\nabla}^2\tilde{u}$$

- This form is useful when the pressure is dominated by inertial forces. This happens when $Re \gg 1$.
- letting $Re \rightarrow 0$ gives

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} \frac{D\tilde{u}}{Dt} = -\tilde{\nabla}\tilde{P} \\ \text{or} \\ \rho \frac{Dv}{Dt} = -\nabla P \end{array}}$$

This is called
Euler's Equation

- This is not linear, but we will be able to make another assumption to get there. This is called inviscid flow. It is good for big objects moving fast.

* Our next several lectures will talk about how to solve the Navier-Stokes, Stokes, & Euler Equations.