# IV.3 Vortex dynamics in perfect fluids

We now turn back to the case of an arbitrary flow  $\vec{v}(t, \vec{r})$ , still in the case of a perfect fluid. The vorticity vector field, defined as the curl of the flow velocity field, was introduced in § [I.1.2] together with the vorticity lines. Modulo a few assumptions on the fluid equation of state and the volume forces, one can show that vorticity is "frozen" in the flow of a perfect fluid, in the sense that the

flux of vorticity across a material surface remains constant as the latter is being transported. This behavior will be investigated and formulated both at the integral level (§ IV.3.1) and differentially (§ IV.3.2).

## IV.3.1 Circulation of the flow velocity. Kelvin's theorem

**Definition:** Let  $\vec{\gamma}(t, \lambda)$  be a closed curve, parametrized by a real number  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ , which is being swept along by the fluid in its motion. The integral

$$\Gamma_{\vec{\gamma}}(t) \equiv \oint_{\vec{\gamma}} \vec{\mathsf{v}}(t, \vec{\gamma}(t, \lambda)) \cdot \mathrm{d}\vec{\ell}$$
(IV.13)

is called the *circulation* around the curve of the velocity field.

**Remark:** According to Stokes' theorem,<sup>(20)</sup> if the area bounded by the contour  $\vec{\gamma}(t, \lambda)$  is simply connected,  $\Gamma_{\vec{\gamma}}(t)$  equals the surface integral—the "flux"—of the vorticity field over every surface  $S_{\vec{\gamma}}(t)$  delimited by  $\vec{\gamma}$ :

$$\Gamma_{\vec{\gamma}}(t) = \int_{\mathcal{S}_{\vec{\gamma}}} \left[ \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\mathsf{v}}(t, \vec{r}) \right] \cdot \mathrm{d}^2 \vec{\mathcal{S}} = \int_{\mathcal{S}_{\vec{\gamma}}} \vec{\omega}(t, \vec{r}) \cdot \mathrm{d}^2 \vec{\mathcal{S}}.$$
(IV.14)

Stated differently, the vorticity field is the flux density of the circulation of the velocity.

This relationship between circulation and vorticity will now be further exploited: we shall first establish and formulate results at the integral level, namely for the circulation, which will then be expressed at the differential level, i.e. in terms of the vorticity, in § [V.3.2].

Many results take a simpler form in a so-called *barotropic fluid* in which the pressure can be expressed as function of only the mass density:  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}(\rho)$ , irrespective of whether the fluid is otherwise perfect or dissipative. An example of such a result is

## Kelvin's circulation theorem:<sup>(u)</sup>

In a perfect barotropic fluid with conservative volume forces, the circulation of the flow velocity around a closed curve (enclosing a simply connected region) (IV.15a) comoving with the fluid is conserved.

Denoting by  $\vec{\gamma}(t,\lambda)$  the closed contour in the theorem,

$$\frac{\mathrm{D}\Gamma_{\vec{\gamma}}(t)}{\mathrm{D}t} = 0. \tag{IV.15b}$$

This result is also sometimes called *Thomson's theorem*.

Proof: For the sake of brevity, the arguments of the fields are omitted in case it is not necessary to specify them. Differentiating definition (IV.13) first gives

$$\frac{\mathrm{D}\Gamma_{\vec{\gamma}}}{\mathrm{D}t} = \frac{\mathrm{D}}{\mathrm{D}t} \int_0^1 \frac{\partial \vec{\gamma}(t,\lambda)}{\partial \lambda} \cdot \vec{\mathsf{v}}(t,\vec{\gamma}(t,\lambda)) \,\mathrm{d}\lambda = \int_0^1 \left[ \frac{\partial^2 \vec{\gamma}}{\partial \lambda \,\partial t} \cdot \vec{\mathsf{v}} + \frac{\partial \vec{\gamma}}{\partial \lambda} \cdot \left( \frac{\partial \vec{\mathsf{v}}}{\partial t} + \sum_i \frac{\partial \vec{\mathsf{v}}}{\partial x^i} \frac{\partial \gamma^i}{\partial t} \right) \right] \mathrm{d}\lambda.$$

Since the contour  $\vec{\gamma}(t,\lambda)$  flows with the fluid,  $\frac{\partial \vec{\gamma}(t,\lambda)}{\partial t} = \vec{v}(t,\vec{\gamma}(t,\lambda))$ , which leads to

$$\frac{\mathrm{D}\Gamma_{\vec{\gamma}}}{\mathrm{D}t} = \int_0^1 \left\{ \frac{\partial \vec{\mathsf{v}}}{\partial \lambda} \cdot \vec{\mathsf{v}} + \frac{\partial \vec{\gamma}}{\partial \lambda} \cdot \left[ \frac{\partial \vec{\mathsf{v}}}{\partial t} + \left( \vec{\mathsf{v}} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \right) \vec{\mathsf{v}} \right] \right\} \mathrm{d}\lambda$$

<sup>(20)</sup>which in its classical form used here is also known as Kelvin–Stokes theorem...

<sup>(xlvi)</sup> barotropes Fluid

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>(u)</sup>W. THOMSON, Baron KELVIN, 1824–1907

The first term in the curly brackets is clearly the derivative with respect to  $\lambda$  of  $\vec{v}^2/2$ , so that its integral along a closed curve vanishes. The second term involves the material derivative of  $\vec{v}$ , as given by the Euler equation. Using Eq. (III.19) with  $\vec{a}_V = -\vec{\nabla}\Phi$  leads to

$$\frac{\mathrm{D}\Gamma_{\vec{\gamma}}}{\mathrm{D}t} = \int_0^1 \left( -\frac{\vec{\nabla}\mathcal{P}}{\rho} - \vec{\nabla}\Phi \right) \cdot \frac{\partial\vec{\gamma}}{\partial\lambda} \,\mathrm{d}\lambda.$$

Again, the circulation of the gradient  $\vec{\nabla}\Phi$  around a closed contour vanishes, leaving

$$\frac{\mathrm{D}\Gamma_{\vec{\gamma}}(t)}{\mathrm{D}t} = -\oint_{\vec{\gamma}} \frac{\vec{\nabla}\mathcal{P}(t,\vec{r})}{\rho(t,\vec{r})} \cdot \mathrm{d}\vec{\ell},\tag{IV.16}$$

which constitutes the general case of Kelvin's circulation theorem for perfect fluids with conservative volume forces.

Transforming the contour integral with Stokes' theorem yields the surface integral of

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \left(\frac{\vec{\nabla}\mathcal{P}}{\rho}\right) = \frac{\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{\nabla}\mathcal{P}}{\rho} + \frac{\vec{\nabla}\mathcal{P} \times \vec{\nabla}\rho}{\rho^2} = \frac{\vec{\nabla}\mathcal{P} \times \vec{\nabla}\rho}{\rho^2}.$$
 (IV.17)

In a barotropic fluid, the rightmost term of this identity vanishes since  $\nabla \mathcal{P}$  and  $\nabla \rho$  are collinear, which yields relation (IV.15).

**Remark:** Using relation (IV.14) and the fact that the area  $S_{\vec{\gamma}}(t)$  bounded by the curve  $\vec{\gamma}$  at time t defines a material surface, which will be transported in the fluid motion, Kelvin's theorem (IV.15) can be restated as

In a perfect barotropic fluid with conservative volume forces, the flux of the vorticity across a material surface is conserved. (IV.18)

Kelvin's theorem leads to two trivial corollaries, namely

# Helmholtz's theorem:<sup>(v)</sup>

In the flow of a perfect barotropic fluid with conservative volume forces, the vorticity lines and vorticity tubes move with the fluid. (IV.19)

Similar to the definition of stream tubes in § 1.3.3, a vorticity tube is defined as the surface formed by the vorticity lines tangent to a given closed geometrical curve. In the case of vanishing vorticity  $\vec{\omega} = \vec{0}$ , one has

#### Lagrange's theorem:

In a perfect barotropic fluid with conservative volume forces, if the flow is irrotational at a given instant t, it remains irrotational at later times.

(IV.20)

Kelvin's circulation theorem (IV.15) and its corollaries imply that vorticity cannot be created nor destroyed in the flow of a perfect barotropic fluid with conservative volume forces. However, the more general form (IV.16) already show that in a non-barotropic fluid, there is a "source" for vorticity, which leads to the non-conservation of the circulation of the flow velocity. Similarly, nonconservative forces—for instance the Coriolis force in a rotating reference frame—may contribute a non-vanishing term in Eq. (IV.16) leading to a change in the circulation. We shall see in Sec. ?? that viscous stresses also affect the transport of vorticity in a fluid.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>(v)</sup>H. von Helmholtz, 1821–1894

### IV.3.2 Vorticity transport equation in perfect fluids

Consider the Euler equation (III.20), in the case of conservative volume forces,  $\vec{a}_V = -\nabla \Phi$ . Taking the rotational curl of both sides yields after some straightforward algebra

$$\frac{\partial \vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r})}{\partial t} - \vec{\nabla} \times \left[ \vec{\mathsf{v}}(t,\vec{r}) \times \vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r}) \right] = -\frac{\vec{\nabla} \mathcal{P}(t,\vec{r}) \times \vec{\nabla} \rho(t,\vec{r})}{\rho(t,\vec{r})^2}.$$
 (IV.21)

This relation can be further transformed using the identity (we omit the variables)

$$\vec{\nabla} \times (\vec{\mathbf{v}} \times \vec{\omega}) = (\vec{\omega} \cdot \vec{\nabla})\vec{\mathbf{v}} + (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\omega})\vec{\mathbf{v}} - (\vec{\mathbf{v}} \cdot \vec{\nabla})\vec{\omega} - (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{v}})\vec{\omega}.$$

Since the divergence of the vorticity field  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\omega}(t, \vec{r})$  vanishes, the previous two equations yield

$$\frac{\partial \vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r})}{\partial t} + \left[\vec{\mathsf{v}}(t,\vec{r})\cdot\vec{\nabla}\right]\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r}) - \left[\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r})\cdot\vec{\nabla}\right]\vec{\mathsf{v}}(t,\vec{r}) = -\left[\vec{\nabla}\cdot\vec{\mathsf{v}}(t,\vec{r})\right]\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r}) - \frac{\vec{\nabla}\mathcal{P}(t,\vec{r})\times\vec{\nabla}\rho(t,\vec{r})}{\rho(t,\vec{r})^2}.$$
(IV.22)

While it is tempting to introduce the material derivative  $D\vec{\omega}/Dt$  on the left hand side of this equation, for the first two terms, we rather define the whole left member to be a new derivative

$$\frac{\mathcal{D}_{\vec{v}}\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r})}{\mathcal{D}t} \equiv \frac{\partial\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r})}{\partial t} + \left[\vec{v}(t,\vec{r})\cdot\vec{\nabla}\right]\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r}) - \left[\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r})\cdot\vec{\nabla}\right]\vec{v}(t,\vec{r})$$
(IV.23a)

or equivalently

$$\frac{\mathcal{D}_{\vec{\mathbf{v}}}\,\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r})}{\mathcal{D}t} \equiv \frac{\mathrm{D}\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r})}{\mathrm{D}t} - \left[\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r})\cdot\vec{\nabla}\right]\vec{\mathbf{v}}(t,\vec{r}).\tag{IV.23b}$$

We shall refer to  $\mathcal{D}_{\vec{v}}/\mathcal{D}t$  as the *comoving time derivative*, for reasons that will be explained at the end of this Section.

Using this definition, Eq. (IV.22) reads

$$\frac{\mathcal{D}_{\vec{\mathbf{v}}}\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r})}{\mathcal{D}t} = -\left[\vec{\nabla}\cdot\vec{\mathbf{v}}(t,\vec{r})\right]\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r}) - \frac{\vec{\nabla}\mathcal{P}(t,\vec{r})\times\vec{\nabla}\rho(t,\vec{r})}{\rho(t,\vec{r})^2}.$$
(IV.24)

In the particular case of a barotropic fluid—recall that we also assumed that it is ideal and only has conservative volume forces—this becomes

$$\frac{\mathcal{D}_{\vec{\mathbf{v}}}\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r})}{\mathcal{D}t} = -\left[\vec{\nabla}\cdot\vec{\mathbf{v}}(t,\vec{r})\right]\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r}).$$
(IV.25)

Thus, the comoving time-derivative of the vorticity is parallel to itself.

From Eq. (IV.25), one deduces at once that if  $\vec{\omega}(t, \vec{r})$  vanishes at some time t, it remains zero—which is the differential formulation of corollary (IV.20).

Invoking the continuity equation (III.9), the volume expansion rate  $\nabla \cdot \vec{v}$  on the right hand side of Eq. (IV.25) can be replaced by  $-(1/\rho)D\rho/Dt$ . For scalar fields, material derivative and comoving time-derivative coincide, which leads to the compact form

$$\frac{\mathcal{D}_{\vec{\mathbf{v}}}}{\mathcal{D}t} \left[ \frac{\vec{\omega}(t,\vec{r})}{\rho(t,\vec{r})} \right] = \vec{0}$$
(IV.26)

for perfect barotropic fluids with conservative volume forces. That is, anticipating on the discussion of the comoving time derivative hereafter,  $\vec{\omega}/\rho$  evolves in the fluid flow in the same way as the separation between two material neighboring points: the ratio is "frozen" in the fluid evolution.

#### Comoving time derivative

To understand the meaning of the comoving time derivative  $\mathcal{D}_{\vec{v}}/\mathcal{D}t$ , let us come back to Fig. [I.1] depicting the positions at successive times t and  $t + \delta t$  of a small material vector  $\delta \vec{\ell}(t)$ . By definition

of the material derivative, the change in  $\delta \vec{\ell}$  between these two instants—as given by the trajectories of the two material points which are at  $\vec{r}$  resp.  $\vec{r} + \delta \vec{\ell}(t)$  at time t—is

$$\delta \vec{\ell}(t+\delta t) - \delta \vec{\ell}(t) = \frac{\mathrm{D}\delta \vec{\ell}(t)}{\mathrm{D}t} \delta t.$$

On the other hand, displacing the origin of  $\delta \vec{\ell}(t+\delta t)$  to let it coincide with that of  $\delta \vec{\ell}(t)$ , one sees





on Fig. IV.6 that this change equals

$$\delta \vec{\ell}(t+\delta t) - \delta \vec{\ell}(t) = \left[\delta \vec{\ell}(t) \cdot \vec{\nabla}\right] \vec{v}(t,\vec{r}) \delta t.$$
  
Equating both results and dividing by  $\delta t$ , one finds  $\frac{\mathbf{D} \delta \vec{\ell}(t)}{\mathbf{D} t} = \left[\delta \vec{\ell}(t) \cdot \vec{\nabla}\right] \vec{v}(t,\vec{r})$ , i.e. precisely  
 $\frac{\mathcal{D}_{\vec{v}} \delta \vec{\ell}(t)}{\mathcal{D} t} = \vec{0}.$  (IV.27)

Thus, the comoving time derivative of a material vector, which moves with the fluid, vanishes. In turn, the comoving time derivative at a given instant t of an arbitrary vector measures its rate of change with respect to a material vector with which it coincides at time t.

This interpretation suggests—this can be proven more rigorously—what the action of the comoving time derivative on a scalar field should be. In that case,  $\mathcal{D}_{\vec{v}}/\mathcal{D}t$  should coincide with the material derivative, which already accounts for all changes—due to non-stationarity and convective transport—affecting material points in their motion. This justifies a posteriori our using  $\mathcal{D}_{\vec{v}}\rho/\mathcal{D}t = D\rho/Dt$  above.

More generally, the comoving time derivative introduced in Eq. (IV.23a) may be rewritten as

$$\frac{\mathcal{D}_{\vec{v}}}{\mathcal{D}t}(\cdot) \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\cdot) + \mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}}(\cdot), \qquad (\text{IV.28})$$

where  $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}}$  denotes the *Lie derivative* along the velocity field  $\vec{v}(\vec{r})$ , whose action on an arbitrary vector field  $\vec{\omega}(\vec{r})$  is precisely (time plays no role here)

$$\mathcal{L}_{\vec{\mathsf{v}}}\,\vec{\omega}(\vec{r}) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \vec{\mathsf{v}}(\vec{r}) \cdot \vec{\nabla} \end{bmatrix} \vec{\omega}(\vec{r}) - \begin{bmatrix} \vec{\omega}(\vec{r}) \cdot \vec{\nabla} \end{bmatrix} \vec{\mathsf{v}}(\vec{r}),$$

while it operates on an arbitrary scalar field  $\rho(\vec{r})$  according to

$$\mathcal{L}_{\vec{\mathsf{v}}}\,\rho(\vec{r}) \equiv \left[\vec{\mathsf{v}}(\vec{r})\cdot\vec{\nabla}\right]\rho(\vec{r})$$

More information on the Lie derivative, including its operation on 1-forms or more generally on  $\binom{m}{n}$ -tensors—from which the action of the comoving time derivative follows—, can be found e.g. in Ref. [17, Chap. 3.1–3.5].