Environmental Fluid Dynamics: Lecture 13

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- Consider the flow of a homogeneous flow that is in geostrophic balance.
- This flow is only observed in laboratory experiments because stratification effects cannot be avoided in nature.
- Imagine a tank with fluid that is steadily rotated at high angular speed $\Omega.$
- At the same time, a solid body is moved slowly across the bottom of the tank.



- The angular speed Ω is made large, and the solid body is moved slowly, so that Coriolis \gg acceleration terms.
- Acceleration terms must be negligible for geostrophic flow.
- Away from the frictional effects of the boundaries, the balance in this experiment is geostrophic in the horizontal and hydrostatic in the vertical.

$$-2\Omega v = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x}$$
(1)
$$2\Omega u = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y}$$
(2)
$$0 = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} - g$$
(3)



• Let's now define the Ekman number as the ratio of viscous to Coriolis forces (per unit volume):

$$E = \frac{\rho \nu U/L^2}{\rho f U} = \frac{\nu}{f L^2}$$

Based on the experimental setup, E is very small.



• First take $\partial/\partial y$ of Eq. (1):

$$-2\Omega\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = -\frac{1}{\rho}\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = -\frac{1}{\rho}\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\frac{\partial p}{\partial y}$$

• Next take $\partial/\partial x$ of Eq. (2):

$$2\Omega \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y}$$

• Both equations are equal:

$$-2\Omega\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 2\Omega\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \to 2\Omega\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}\right) = 0$$

• Recall that the incompressibility condition says $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{U} = 0$. Therefore, $\partial w / \partial z = 0$.



• Next, differentiate Eqs. (1) and (2) with respect to z:

$$-2\Omega \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z}$$
$$2\Omega \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{\partial p}{\partial z}$$

• Using Eq. (3):

$$-2\Omega\frac{\partial v}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} = 0 \qquad 2\Omega\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} = 0$$

• Both equations are equal:

$$2\Omega \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} = 2\Omega \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \to \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial z} = 0$$

- We already showed that $\partial w/\partial z=0,$ so

$$\frac{\partial \vec{U}}{\partial z} = 0$$



 $\frac{\partial \vec{U}}{\partial z} = 0$

- This outcome shows that the velocity vector does not vary in the direction of the $\vec{\Omega}$.
- In other words, steady, slow motions in a rotating, inviscid, homogeneous fluid are two-dimensional.
- This is the Taylor-Proudman theorem.
- This theorem was derived by Proudman in 1916 and proved experimentally by Taylor soon thereafter.



Taylor's Experiment:

- Dye was released at point A, above the cylinder.
- If non-rotating, the dye would pass over the cylinder.
- If rotating, the dye split at point S, as if blocked by an extension of the cylinder, and flowed around this imaginary column.
- This was called a **Taylor** column.



Taylor's Experiment:

- Dye released at point *B* moved with the cylinder.
- Conclusion: the flow outside of the vertical extension of the cylinder was the same as if the cylinder extended across the entire water depth.
- Conclusion: a column of water directly above the cylinder moved with it.



- For the case of a rotating steady, inviscid, homogeneous fluid, Taylor's experiments showed that bodies moving parallel or perpendicular to the axis of rotation carry with them a Taylor column of fluid.
- This Taylor column of fluid is oriented parallel to the axis of rotation.
- This phenomenon is similar to horizontal solid-body blocking in the real (stratified) world, such as flow encountering a mountain.



• Recall that the geostrophic wind is:

$$\overrightarrow{V_g} = \frac{1}{\rho f} \hat{k} \times \overrightarrow{\nabla} p$$

• We now define the thermal wind as:

$$\overrightarrow{V_T} = \overrightarrow{V_g}$$
, upper $-\overrightarrow{V_g}$, lower

- The thermal wind is the vector difference between the geostrophic wind at some upper level and lower level.
- The name is a misnomer because it is not a wind.



- Why do we care about vertical changes in the geostrophic wind?
- Vertical changes in $\overrightarrow{V_g}$ (and hence the thermal wind) are associated with horizontal changes in temperature.
- Recall that the hydrostatic balance is given by:

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = -\rho g$$

we can apply the ideal gas law $p=\rho RT$ to get:

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = -\frac{pg}{RT}$$



 Consider an infinitesimally small difference in height δz between two adjacent pressure levels that are separated by the very small pressure difference δp:

$$\delta z = -\frac{RT}{pg}\delta p$$

• Integrate to get the thickness between these two pressure levels spaced arbitrarily far apart:

$$z_2 - z_1 = -\frac{R}{g} \int_{p1}^{p_2} \frac{T}{p} dp$$

• Thus, the thickness of a layer is proportional to the temperature in the layer.



• As an example:



• Another example with the same temperature field:



• In both cases, the geostrophic wind changes with height because of horizontal temperature gradients.



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• The expression for the thermal wind is messy!

$$\overrightarrow{V_T} = \overrightarrow{V_g}_{\text{, upper}} - \overrightarrow{V_g}_{\text{, lower}} = \frac{1}{\rho_{f \text{upper}}} \hat{k} \times \overrightarrow{\nabla} p_{\text{upper}} - \frac{1}{f \rho_{\text{upper}}} \hat{k} \times \overrightarrow{\nabla} p_{\text{lower}}$$

• We can make life easier if we switch to isobaric coordinates by using

$$\frac{1}{\rho}\vec{\nabla}_z p = \vec{\nabla}_p \Phi$$

where $\Phi = gz$. We get a much nicer expression:

$$\overrightarrow{V_T} = \frac{1}{f} \times \overrightarrow{\nabla}_p \left(\Phi_{\text{upper}} - \Phi_{\text{lower}} \right)$$



• Remember that the thermal wind is related to the vertical shear of the geostrophic wind:

$$ec{V_g} = rac{1}{f} \hat{k} imes ec{
abla}_p \Phi$$
 take $\partial/\partial p$
 $rac{\partial ec{V_g}}{\partial p} = rac{1}{f} \hat{k} imes ec{
abla}_p rac{\partial \Phi}{\partial p}$

$$\begin{array}{l} \displaystyle \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = -\rho g \rightarrow [\div \text{ by } g \text{ and use } gz = \Phi] \rightarrow \frac{\partial p}{\partial \Phi} = -\rho \\ \\ \displaystyle \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial p} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \rightarrow [\text{use ideal gas law}] \rightarrow \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial p} = -\frac{RT}{p} \end{array}$$

We've now related $\partial \Phi / \partial p$ to T



• Continuing:

$$\begin{split} & \frac{\partial \overrightarrow{V_g}}{\partial p} = \frac{1}{f} \hat{k} \times \vec{\nabla}_p \left(-\frac{RT}{p} \right) \quad p = \text{constant for isobaric level} \\ & \frac{\partial \overrightarrow{V_g}}{\partial p} = -\frac{R}{fp} \hat{k} \times \vec{\nabla}_p T \\ \hline & -\frac{\partial \overrightarrow{V_g}}{\partial p} = \frac{R}{fp} \hat{k} \times \vec{\nabla}_p T \end{split}$$

This is the **thermal wind relation**, although it is really an equation for the vertical shear of the geostrophic wind.



• Integrating the thermal wind relation will lead to the following general relationship in the Northern Hempisphere:

$$\overrightarrow{V_T} = (\text{positive values})\hat{k} \times \overrightarrow{\nabla}_p T$$

Thus, $\overrightarrow{V_T}$ is parallel to mean isotherms in a layer, with cold air to the left of $\overrightarrow{V_T}$.



• This describes the **Thermal Buys-Ballot Law**: "with $\overrightarrow{V_T}$ to your back, cold air is to your left."

