The shape of a rotating fluid drop

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REPORT 89-01

THE SHAPE OF A ROTATING FLUID DROP

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December 1988
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1. Summary
In this article the problem of a rotating fluid drop, held together by surface-tension, will be studied. A differential equation for the shape of the fluid surface is derived and the solution of this differential equation, dependent on characteristic parameters is calculated numerically.

2. Formulation of the problem
A fluid drop, held together by surface-tension rotates around a fixed axis. The following figure sketches the situation: Known parameters:

Such problems are conveniently described in cylindrical coordinates, to utilize the rotational symmetry in the \((x,y)\)-plane. The surface of the drop will be described by a curve in the \((r,z)\)-plane rotating around the \(z\)-axis. Thus the curve in the first quadrant of the \((r,z)\)-plane can be written in the form

\[ z = F(r) \quad \text{with} \quad r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}. \]

In order to apply the boundary-condition

\[ p = \gamma \cdot \text{div} \, N \]

where

\( p \quad \text{denotes the excess pressure at the surface and} \)

\( N \quad \text{the outward normal field of the surface,} \)

we want to find equations for \( p \) and \( \text{div} \, N \) in terms of \( F(r) \).

The following expression for \( N \) is given in reference [1]

\[ N(x,y,z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (F')^2}} \left[ \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} F', \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} F', + 1 \right]. \]

It should be mentioned, that this is only one of the many possible extensions of the normal field on the surface \( S \) given by \( z = F(r) \). If we calculate the divergence of \( N \) and restrict it to \( S \), the
result is not dependent on the choice of the extension of $N$. For the divergence we get:

$$\text{div } N = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(F')^2}} \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} F' - \frac{(F')^2 F''}{1+(F')^2} \right].$$

(2.3)

Restricting this to $S$ we get:

$$\text{div } N = -\frac{F'}{r \sqrt{1+(F')^2}} - \frac{F''}{\sqrt{1+(F')^2}}.$$

(2.4)

Next we want to obtain an expression for the pressure $p$. Consider in the $(x,y)$-plane

The differential force (caused by the differential mass-element $dm$ filling the volume $dV = dr \cdot dA$) is given by

$$dF = a \cdot dm$$

(2.5)

where $a$ is the centrifugal acceleration due to the rotation. It is given by

$$a(r; \omega) = \omega^2 \cdot r.$$  

(2.6)

Using $dm = \rho \space dV = \rho \space r \space d\phi \space dz \space dr$ we get for $dF$

$$dF = \omega^2 \space r \cdot \rho \space r \space d\phi \space dz \space dr$$

and finally

$$dp = \frac{dF}{dr} = \rho \space \omega^2 \space r \space dr,$$

(2.7)

which means, after integration

$$p(r; \omega) = \int_0^r dp = \int_0^r \rho \space \omega^2 \space r \space dr$$
(2.8) \[ p_0(\omega) + \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 \rho r^2. \]

The integration 'constant' \( p_0 \) will be calculated later. Note that we expect a 'smooth' transition of \( p(r; \omega) \) for \( \omega \to 0 \) to the case \( \bar{p}(r) \) for \( \omega = 0 \).

Then the fluid forms a ball. The divergence of the normal field of a sphere with radius \( R \) equals

(2.9) \[ \text{div} \, N = \frac{2}{R}. \]

This means, that \( \bar{p} = \gamma \cdot \frac{2}{R} \) on the surface of the ball. In this case \( R \) is given by \( R = 3/4\pi \cdot V^{1/3} \).

Gathering all details, we arrive at a differential equation for \( F = F(r) \)

(2.10) \[ p_0 + \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 \rho r^2 = -\gamma \left[ \frac{F'}{F(1 + (F')^2)^{1/2}} + \frac{F''}{(1 + (F')^2)^{3/2}} \right] \]

\( r \in [0, r_1] \)

with boundary values

(2.11a) \[ F'(0) = 0 \]

(2.11b) \[ F(r_1) = 0 \]

(2.11c) \[ F'(r_1) = \lim_{r \to r_1} F'(r) = -\infty \]

(2.11d) \[ V = 4\pi \int_0^{r_1} r \cdot F(r) \, dr. \]

The constants \( \omega, \rho, V \) are given and \( r_1 \) and \( p_0 \) are up to now unknown. This is consistent with the second order differential equation and the four boundary conditions.

3. Derivation of the final equation

Now we define \( g := F' \) and notice, that

\[ \frac{g'}{\sqrt{1 + g^2}} + \frac{g}{\sqrt{1 + g^2}} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{dr} \left[ \frac{rg}{\sqrt{1 + g^2}} \right]. \]

The differential equation (2.10) is thus transformed into

(3.1) \[ -\left[ \frac{p_0}{\gamma} r + \frac{\omega^2 \rho}{2\gamma} r^3 \right] = \frac{d}{dr} \left[ \frac{rg}{\sqrt{1 + g^2}} \right]. \]

This can be easily integrated
\( \frac{r_{g}}{\sqrt{1+g^{2}}} = - \left[ \frac{p_{0}}{2\gamma} r^{2} + \frac{\omega^{2} p}{8\gamma} r^{4} \right] + K_{0}. \)

The integration constant \( K_{0} \) can be calculated by applying boundary condition (2.11a)

\[ g(0) = 0 \Rightarrow 0 = K_{0}. \]

It means that \( g \) is given by:

\[
g = \frac{- \left[ \frac{p_{0}}{2\gamma} r + \frac{\omega^{2} p}{8\gamma} r^{3} \right]}{\left\{ 1 - \left[ \frac{p_{0}}{2\gamma} r + \frac{\omega^{2} p}{8\gamma} r^{3} \right]^{2} \right\}^{1/2}}.
\]

If we introduce the constants

\[ K_{1} = \frac{p_{0}}{2\gamma}; \quad K_{2} = \frac{\omega^{2} p}{8\gamma}, \]

then \( g \) can be written in the following form:

\[
g = \frac{-(K_{1} r + K_{2} r^{3})}{(1-(K_{1} r + K_{2} r^{3})) \cdot (1+(K_{1} r + K_{2} r^{3}))^{1/2}}.
\]

Boundary condition (2.11c) says that for a certain \( r_{1} \) the relation

\[ g(r_{1}) = \lim_{r \downarrow r_{1}} g(r) = -\infty \] holds.

If we restrict ourselves to \( K_{1} > -\frac{3}{2}(2K_{2})^{1/3} \), then \( 1+(K_{1} r + K_{2} r^{3}) \) has no positive zeros. This means, that \( p_{0} > -3 \cdot \left[ \frac{\rho \omega^{2} \gamma^{2}}{4} \right]^{1/3} \). Hence \( r_{1} \) is the lowest positive zero of \( 1-(K_{1} r + K_{2} r^{3}) \), i.e. \( 1 = K_{1} r_{1} + K_{2} r_{1}^{3} \). Now \( p_{0} \) can be calculated;

\[
p_{0}(\omega) = \frac{2\gamma}{r_{1}} - \frac{\omega^{2} \rho r_{1}^{2}}{4}.
\]

This, indeed, gives the desired result for \( \omega = 0 \) (compare (2.9)):

\[
p_{0}(0) = \frac{2\gamma}{r_{1}} = \bar{p} \quad (the \ pressure \ of \ the \ drop \ at \ rest).
\]

We now define

\[ C := K_{2} r_{1}^{3} = \frac{\omega^{2} \rho}{8\gamma} \cdot r_{1}^{3} \]

and so
The restriction on \( K_1 \) means, that
\[
K_1 r_1 > -3/2 (2K_2 r_1^3)^{1/3}
\]
\[\Rightarrow 1 - C > -3/2 (2C)^{1/3}\]
and so \( C < 4 \).

The constant \( C \) has also a physical interpretation.

\[
C = \frac{1}{4} \frac{\omega^2 \rho r_1^2}{2\gamma/\rho} = \text{ratio due to rotation of additional pressure}
\]
due to rotation pressure of a drop of the same diameters at rest

since \( p(r_1) = \frac{2\gamma}{r_1} + \frac{1}{4} \omega^2 \rho r_1^2 \).

Our first goal was to say something explicitly about the shape of the drop. We could therefore as well scale the whole problem with the radius \( r_1 \) (which is still unknown):
\[
r = r_1 r^* \quad F = r_1 F^*.
\]
We get
\[
\text{(3.11)} \quad g^* = F^* = \frac{-(K_1 r_1 r^* + K_2 r_1^3 r^*)}{(1-(K_1 r_1 r^* + K_2 r_1^3 r^*^2)^{1/3}}.
\]
If we now drop the * and use the definition of \( C \) we get
\[
\text{(3.12)} \quad F^* = \frac{-(1-C) r + C r^3)}{\sqrt{1-((1-C) r + C r^3)^2}}.
\]
This is exactly the same equation, that Chandresekhar gave in his appendix to [1].

We now integrate (3.12) from \( v \) to 1 and obtain:
\[
F(1) - F(v) = \int_v^1 \frac{-(1-C) x + C x^3}{\sqrt{1-((1-C) x + C x^3)^2}} \, dx.
\]
Application of boundary condition (2.11b) yields \( F(r_1) = F^*(1) = 0 \), which results in the following equation for \( F \), with the only parameter \( C \)
\[
\text{(3.13)} \quad F(r) = \int_{\sqrt{1-((1-C) x + C x^3)^2} = dx}
\]
\( C \) is implicitly given by
\[
\tilde{V} = \frac{1}{\rho} \int_0^r F(r; C) \, dr
\]
(3.14)
\[
\tilde{V} = V \cdot C \cdot \frac{8 \gamma}{\omega^2 \rho}
\]

This equation is also given in Chandrasekhar's paper [1].

**Analysis of the equation (3.13)**

In [1] the integral (3.13) is transformed by a substitution and rather complicated definitions for the boundaries of the integral. In the end Chandrasekhar gets a sum of elliptic integrals of first and second kind for \( F \).

We did not want to do this. However we want to say something about the integral by more elementary considerations.

There are four different regions for \( C \):

a) \( C = 0 \)

b) \( 0 < C < 1 \)

c) \( C = 1 \)

d) \( 1 < C \)

The case \( C = 0 \) which corresponds to \( \omega = 0 \) gives us another possibility to check the equation:

\[
F_0(r) = \int_0^1 \frac{x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx = \left[ -\sqrt{1-x^2} \right]_0^1 = \sqrt{1-r^2}
\]
(4.1)

This means that for \( C = 0 (\omega = 0) \) we get back the ball.

Now we look at the other three cases.

The equations are:

\[
F(r) = \int_0^1 \frac{(1-C)x + C x^3}{\sqrt{1-(1-C)x + C x^3}} \, dx
\]
(4.2)

\[
F'(r) = - \frac{(1-C)r + C r^3}{\sqrt{1-(1-C)r + C r^3}^2} \, dx
\]
(4.3)

\[
F''(r) = - \frac{(1-C) + 3C \sqrt{r^2}}{\sqrt{1-(1-C)r + C r^3}^2} - \frac{((1-C) + C r^2)}{\sqrt{1-(1-C)r + C r^3}^2} \cdot \frac{((1-C) + 3C r^2)}{\sqrt{1-(1-C)r + C r^3}^2}.
\]
(4.4)

We look for extremal points of \( F(r) \) for
\[ r \in [0; 1] : F'(r) = 0 = (1-C)r + C r^3 \]

\[ \Rightarrow r = 0 \text{ or } r = \pm \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{1/C}}. \]

- In the case \( 0 < C < 1 \) the last two solutions are no real numbers and \( F'(r) < 0 \ \forall r \in (0,1). \)
- For \( C = 1 \) all zeros coincide, i.e. \( F'(r) < 0, r \in (0,1). \) If we evaluate \( F''(0) \) in this case, then we get \( F''(0) = -(1-C) = 0, \) meaning that for \( C = 1 \) the drop is flat at the top.
- If \( C > 1 \) we get two zeros of \( F' \) that are relevant, viz. \( r = 0 \) and \( r_\infty = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{C}} \) with \( r_\infty \in (0,1). \)
Evaluating \( F''(r_\infty) \) we get

\[ F''(r_\infty) = -4(C-1) < 0, \]

which means that \( r_\infty \) is a maximum.

The graph of \( F(r) \) is qualitatively plotted in the following diagram:

5. Numerical results

From Fig. 4.1 the question arises:
For which value of \( C \) is \( F(0) = 0? \)
In order to get this, we tried to integrate equation (4.2) numerically, and it turned out, that a modified Simpson-method worked quite well. So we could test for which \( C \) it happens that \( F(0) = 0. \)

As a first approximation we got \( C_{\text{max}} = 2.32. \) This is also the number given in [1] for the maximum \( C, \) if the drop is to enclose the origin.

Apparently, for \( C > C_{\text{max}} \) the drop surface becomes 'inverted' and therefore unphysical. Maybe, beyond \( C = 4 \) other shapes become possible again. This is still an interesting subject of study.
Plots of some typical drop shapes can be seen on the following figures. The corresponding numerical results are listed in Tab. 5.1.

**NUMERIC RESULTS**

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<tr>
<th>$R$</th>
<th>$f(R)$</th>
<th>$C = 0.500$</th>
<th>$C = 1.00$</th>
<th>$C = 1.700$</th>
<th>$C = 2.320$</th>
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Tab. 5.1.

**References**


   The equilibrium of revolving liquid, Phil. Mag. 28, p. 161-170.
C=0.500

The shape of the drop.

C=1.000

The shape of the drop.
(H)ardCopy, (S)top. (1). The shape of the drop.

\[ C = 1.700 \]

![Graph for C = 1.700](image)

\[ C = 2.020 \]

![Graph for C = 2.020](image)

(H)ardCopy, (S)top. (1). The shape of the drop.